

Catalytic mechanism for reduction of bicarbonate in the active site of formate dehydrogenase

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Tiivistelmä

Formaattidehydrogenaasit (FDH) ovat yleensä homodimeerisinä esiintyviä oksidoreduktaaseja, jotka katalysoivat formaatin hapettumista hiilidioksidiksi samalla pelkistäen NAD^+ :n NADH :ksi. Nämä entsyymit ovat yleisiä metylotrooppisissa hiivoissa ja bakteereissa, joissa niitä tarvitaan metanolin ja metaanin kataboliassa. FDH:t katalysoivat suhteellisen yksinkertaista hydridinsiirtoreaktiota, jossa formaatti luovuttaa hydridin NAD^+ :n nikotiiniamidirenkkaan C_4N -atomille. Reaktion tuloksena syntyy hiilidioksidia ja NADH :ia. Viime vuosikymmenten aikana FDH:ja on hyödynnetty koentsyymien uudelleenmuodostusjärjestelmissä, joissa tuotetaan NADH :ia, jonka valmistus tavanomaisilla kemian synteesisimenetelmillä olisi kallista. Eräs toinen lupaava FDH:ien käyttökohde on hiilen sitominen ilmakehästä ja meristä. Tähän käytettäisiin käänteisreaktioita, eli hiilidioksidin pelkistämistä formaatiksi. Viimeaikaisten kokeellisten tulosten perusteella voidaan päätellä, että FDH:t voivat pelkistää myös bikarbonaatin formaatiksi.

Tämän pro gradu -tutkielman tavoitteena oli kehittää malli katalyysireaktiolle, jossa bikarbonaatti pelkistyy formaatiksi *Pseudomonas sp.* -bakteerin (kanta 101) FDH:n aktiivisessa kohdassa. Tätä varten tehtiin kolme erilaista mallia klassisia molekyyliidynamiikkasimulaatioita varten. PDB-rakenne 2NAD oli kaikkien mallien lähtökohtana. Tärkeimmässä simulaatiossa bikarbonaatti ja NADH asetettiin aktiiviseen kohtaan. Vertailun vuoksi ajettiin myös kaksi muuta simulaatioita, joista ensimmäisessä aktiiviseen kohtaan sijoitettiin formaatti ja NAD^+ . Tämän simulaation tuloksia verrattiin kirjallisuuteen, jotta muidenkin simulaatioiden tuloksia voitaisiin pitää luotettavina. Toisessa vertailusimulaatiossa tarkasteltiin voisiko hiilidioksidi reagoida takaisin formaatiksi NADH :n vaikutuksesta.

Simulaatiossa bikarbonaatti asettui hydridinsiirtoa suosivaan asentoon. Tähän kului aikaa kuitenkin jopa 3 nanosekuntia. Kokeelliset tulokset olivat samansuuntaisia tämän havainnon kanssa. Bikarbonaatin suotuisan asennon pohjalta luotiin malli pelkistymisreaktiolle. Mallissa NADH :n luovuttama hydridi sitoutuu kovalenttisesti bikarbonaatin hiiliatomiin, mikä synnyttää elektronien ylimäärän. Tästä syystä bikarbonaatin ja hydridin muodostama kompleksi hajoaa formaatti- ja hydroksidi-ioneiksi. Vertailusimulaatiossa formaatti ei asettunut hydridinsiirron kannalta optimaaliseen asentoon; tämä selittyy todennäköisesti klassisen molekyyliidynamiikkasimulaation epätarkkuustekijöillä, jotka ovat yleisesti tiedossa. Käänteisreaktio vaikuttaisi olevan mahdollinen, sillä hiilidioksidi kulkeutui ajoittain lähelle NADH :n C_4N -atomiin sitoutunutta hydridiä.

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Abstract

Formate dehydrogenases (FDHs) are a set of mostly homodimeric oxidoreductases that catalyze the oxidation of formate to carbon dioxide with the concurrent reduction of NAD^+ to NADH. These enzymes are common to methylotropic yeasts and bacteria in which they are vital in the catabolism of methanol and methane. FDHs catalyze relatively simple hydride transfer reaction in which formate donates a hydride to the C4_N atom of the nicotinamide ring of NAD^+ , yielding carbon dioxide and NADH. During the recent decades, FDHs have been utilized in coenzyme regeneration systems that produce NADH which would be expensive to manufacture by conventional chemical synthesis. Another promising application of FDHs is carbon fixation from the atmosphere and the oceans using the reverse reaction, the reduction of carbon dioxide to formate. Recent experimental evidence suggests that formate dehydrogenases are able to reduce bicarbonate to formate as well.

The aim of this thesis was to develop a model for the catalytic mechanism for the reduction of bicarbonate in the active site of FDH from bacterium *Pseudomonas sp.* strain 101. For this purpose, three different initial models for classical molecular dynamics simulations were constructed. The PDB structure 2NAD was used as a basis for all models. In addition to the main simulation which included bicarbonate and NADH in the active site, two reference simulations were performed as well. In the first one, formate and NAD^+ were simulated in the active site to ensure that the results would be comparable to earlier computational studies on the same subject. The purpose of the second reference simulation was to observe if carbon dioxide could react to formate in the presence of NADH.

It was discovered that bicarbonate settled in a conformation ideal for hydride transfer during the simulation. However, the process itself was a time-consuming process, taking up to 3 nanoseconds of simulation time. Experimental results seemed to support this observation. Based on the optimal conformation of bicarbonate, a model for the catalytic mechanism was developed. In the model, the hydride donated by NADH would form a covalent bond to the carbon atom of bicarbonate, resulting in a surplus of electrons within the molecule. This would cause the complex formed by bicarbonate and the hydride to break into formate and hydroxide ions. In the reference simulation with formate the optimal conformations for hydride transfer were not observed, but this was probably due to the inaccuracies of the classical molecular dynamics method described in earlier studies. Carbon dioxide seemed to have a destabilizing effect on the active site. The reverse reaction could still be possible as carbon dioxide occasionally drifted close to the hydride of NADH bound to the C4_N .

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My special thanks go to our partners of cooperation at Istanbul Technical University who have conducted various laboratory experiments with formate dehydrogenases. Their experimental results have been vital in evaluating the validity of the computational results.

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Tampere, May 2016

Jouni Ruupunen

Abbreviations

ADH	alcohol dehydrogenase
CatDCD	a plugin for manipulating DCD trajectory files
CbFDH	formate dehydrogenase from <i>Candida boindii</i>
CGenFF	CHARMM General Force Field, a force field for small molecules
CHARMM	Chemistry at Harvard Macromolecular Mechanics, a force field for MD
CmFDH	formate dehydrogenase from <i>Candida methylica</i>
CSC	Finnish IT Center for Science
CtFDH	formate dehydrogenase from <i>Chaetomium thermophilum</i>
DCD	CHARMM/NAMD binary trajectory file
FDH	formate dehydrogenase
LDH	lactose dehydrogenase
MD	molecular dynamics
MDH	malate dehydrogenase
NAC	near attack conformation
NAD ⁺	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, oxidized
NADH	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, reduced
NAMD	Nanoscale Molecular Dynamics program
PDB	Protein Data Bank
PseFDH	formate dehydrogenase from <i>Pseudomonas sp.</i> strain 101
PSF	Protein Structure File
QM/MM	quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics
SLURM	Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management
TIP3P	a model for simulating water molecules
VMD	Visual Molecular Dynamics

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1 Introduction

Formate dehydrogenases were discovered in the early 1950s from green pea (*Pisum sativum*) and at that time they were treated as another new dehydrogenases, with no obvious applications. But it was not until the 1970s when the scientific community realized their underlying potential. First off, formate dehydrogenases were used as model enzymes for hydride transfer reactions. The reaction itself is fairly simple. Formate donates a hydride to NAD^+ which yields carbon dioxide and NADH. Producing NADH by traditional chemical synthesis is an expensive and laborious process. The idea of NADH regeneration systems utilizing formate dehydrogenases was introduced soon after the first kinetic studies. Such systems were first implemented cost-effectively in the mid-1990s (Tishkov & Popov, 2004).

Meanwhile, the global warming has been progressing at an alarming rate. Governments around the world have been unable to make new meaningful agreements on reducing carbon emissions, let alone to keep their past promises. Atmospheric carbon dioxide is one of the most significant greenhouse gases, and it contributes to the ever-increasing ocean acidification as well. In addition to planting more trees, the idea of enzymatic carbon fixation has emerged during the last decade. This is where formate dehydrogenases come into question. For example, pure enzymes or environmentally harmless microorganisms genetically engineered to produce large amounts of formate dehydrogenase could be placed into the oceans around the world to convert dissolved carbon dioxide and bicarbonate into formate, thus reducing atmospheric carbon and consequently decelerating the global warming.

Carbon fixation with formate dehydrogenases is plausible because the conversion from formate to carbon dioxide and from NAD^+ to NADH is essentially reversible, as the major part of all enzymatic reactions. Although, having evolved to formate oxidation, formate dehydrogenases should be studied further and carefully engineered to favor the reverse reaction before using them in the field. An important problem to be solved in this plan is the detoxification of formate produced in the process of carbon fixation.

The unpredictably fast development of computational capabilities of personal computers and computer clusters in the last decades has allowed scientists, including enzymologists and structural biologists, to analyze various enzyme–ligand interactions *in silico*. In this thesis, the methods of molecular modeling and dynamics were used to study the interactions of

bicarbonate, formate and carbon dioxide with either NAD^+ or NADH in the active site of formate dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas sp.* strain 101 which is the most well-known of all formate dehydrogenases. Many detailed computational studies about the behavior of formate in the active site are available, but no similar data on bicarbonate and carbon dioxide have been published. Thus, the aim of this thesis is to provide initial information about the functions of the two latter molecules in the active site and to develop a novel reaction mechanism for the reduction of bicarbonate by the effect of NADH .

2 Literature review

2.1 Fundamentals of formate dehydrogenases

NAD⁺-dependent formate dehydrogenases (FDHs) have been the favorite models of enzymologists since the mid-1970s (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). Although the reaction they catalyze is rather simple, chemical and pharmaceutical industries have already utilized formate dehydrogenases in NADH regeneration systems (Tishkov & Popov, 2004). NADH regeneration systems are used in the syntheses of chirally active compounds, such as certain drugs and amino acids, in which the main synthesis reaction consumes NADH. Without constant regeneration, the high-priced NADH required would have to be acquired commercially (Popov & Tishkov, 2003; Tishkov & Popov, 2004). Another yet hypothetical but promising use for formate dehydrogenases is in climate change mitigation. With enzyme engineering, formate dehydrogenases could be made more efficient in utilizing atmospheric CO₂ and bicarbonate dissolved in the oceans (Reda *et al.*, 2008; Mondal *et al.*, 2015).

Vital to methylotropic organisms, formate dehydrogenases are found in many yeasts and aerobic bacteria that use one-carbon compounds as their primary source of carbon. In the catabolism of these compounds, mainly methane and methanol, formate dehydrogenase is the terminal step in the metabolic pathway (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). A schematic representation of the methanol pathway in yeasts is shown in Figure 1. Formate ions are oxidized to carbon dioxide and simultaneously NAD⁺ is reduced to NADH in a simple hydride transfer reaction where the carbon-hydrogen bond in formate is broken and a new one is formed between the released hydride and C_{4N} of the nicotinamide ring of NAD⁺ (Lamzin *et al.*, 1994). Water molecules disturb these hydride transfer reactions and in case of most formate dehydrogenases, neither are coordination complexes with metal ions (Lamzin *et al.*, 1994). One exception to the rule are particular metal-dependent formate dehydrogenases, which are usually found in bacteria that can operate in anoxic environments, with *E. coli* being the most notable example (Mota *et al.*, 2011). However, it should be pointed out that formate dehydrogenases from anaerobic bacteria tend to denature in contact with oxygen (Egorov *et al.*, 1979). This does not apply to formate dehydrogenases from methylotropic bacteria, as they are stable in air (Popov & Lamzin, 1994; Egorov *et al.*, 1979).

The most extensively studied FDH enzyme to date is that of *Pseudomonas sp.*, strain 101 (PseFDH), whose residue numbering and structural properties are often used as a reference when studying FDHs from other species. This is because FDHs from bacteria are the most stable known FDHs in general, making them easier to analyze. They have a wide pH optimum, spanning from 6.0 to 9.0. Furthermore, PseFDH is the most thermostable FDH as it does not lose functionality until the temperature of 67.6 °C is reached (Alekseeva *et al.*, 2011; Tishkov & Popov, 2006). Another well-known stable FDH is the one found in yeast *Candida boindii* (Schirwitz *et al.*, 2007), which denatures in 64.4 °C (Alekseeva *et al.*, 2011).

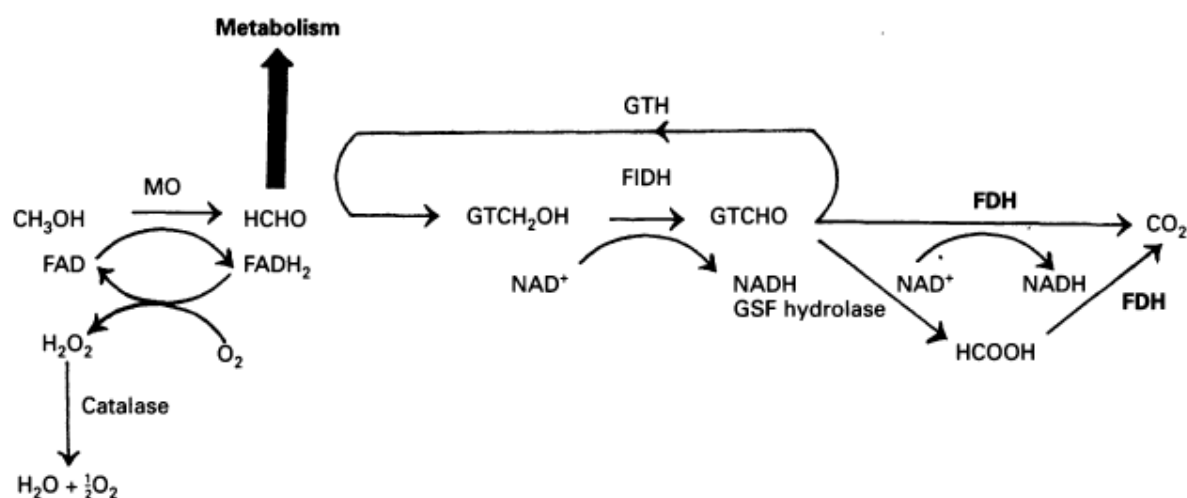


Figure 1. The metabolic pathway of methanol catabolism in yeasts. FDH is the terminal step in this pathway as it oxidizes formate anions to CO₂. Scheme adapted from Popov & Lamzin (1994).

2.2 Structure and localization of formate dehydrogenases

2.2.1 Quaternary and tertiary structure

All known formate dehydrogenases found in organisms exist as homodimers. The whole molecule is somewhat globular in shape and each subunit has two Rossmann fold based domains: a coenzyme-binding domain and a catalytic domain (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). The coenzyme-binding domain specifically recognizes and binds NAD⁺ and the catalytic domain is responsible for catalysis. Interestingly, the two catalytic domains are located on the opposite ends of the FDH enzyme complex, as seen in Figure 2. The domains are linked to each other via single α -helices, designated as α A and α 8, respectively (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). *In vivo*,

the two subunits are firmly bound to each other via their coenzyme-binding domains and do not readily dissociate into individual units. However, experimental data has shown that single FDH subunits do have catalytic activity; this was proposed already when the first high resolution structure of PseFDH was determined (Popov & Tishkov, 2003; Lamzin *et al.*, 1994). Consequently, conformation changes in one subunit do not affect the other, and thus the subunits function non-cooperatively.

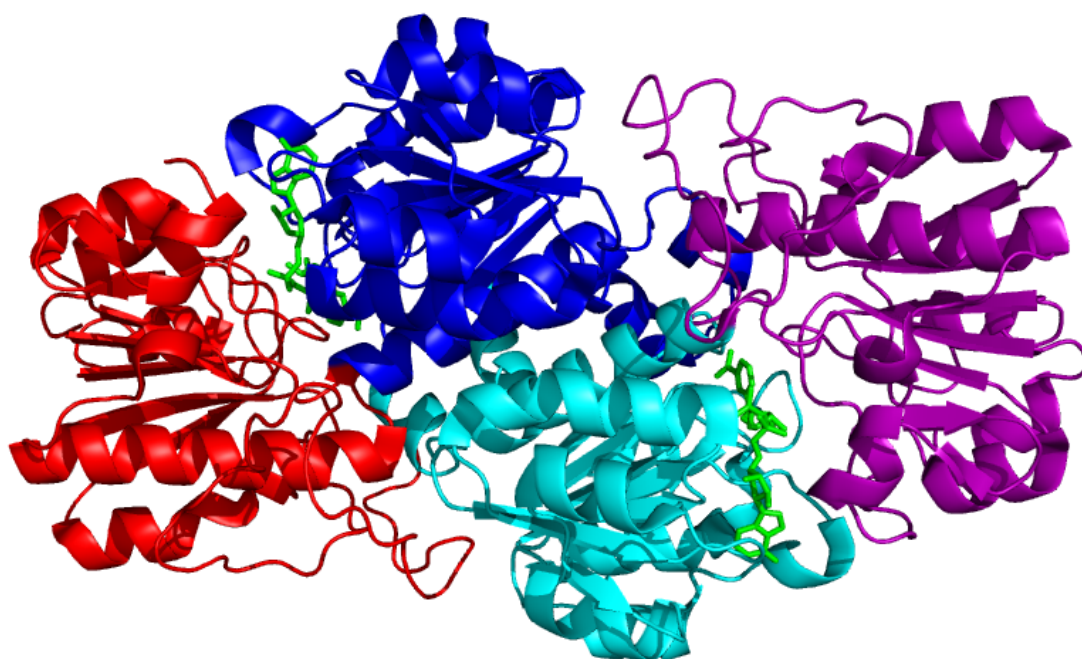


Figure 2. Ribbon presentation of the FDH complex with two bound NAD⁺ molecules (green). Catalytic domains are shown in red and purple, coenzyme binding domains in blue and cyan. Image made with PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.3).

2.2.2 Secondary structure

The secondary structure of FDH is very similar compared to those of other dehydrogenase enzymes such as alcohol, lactose and malate dehydrogenases (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). There is a Rossmann fold which is made up by a seven-stranded parallel β -sheet in the coenzyme-binding domain. The β -strands are linked by α -helices. The catalytic domain consists of a

truncated Rossmann fold, with five parallel β -strands encircled by four α -helices (Filippova *et al.*, 2005; Popov & Tishkov, 2003; Popov & Lamzin, 1994). Topology diagram of a single subunit of FDH is shown in Figure 3.

When comparing the structures of FDHs from *Pseudomonas sp.* 101 and *Candida boindii* (CbFDH), the main differences lie in the organization of the catalytic domain. CbFDH has a shorter dimerization helix which reduces the contact area between domains (Schirwitz *et al.*, 2007). Hence the two domains reside farther away from each other than in the PseFDH subunit. On the contrary, the coenzyme binding domains of both enzymes are nearly identical in shape (Schirwitz *et al.*, 2007).

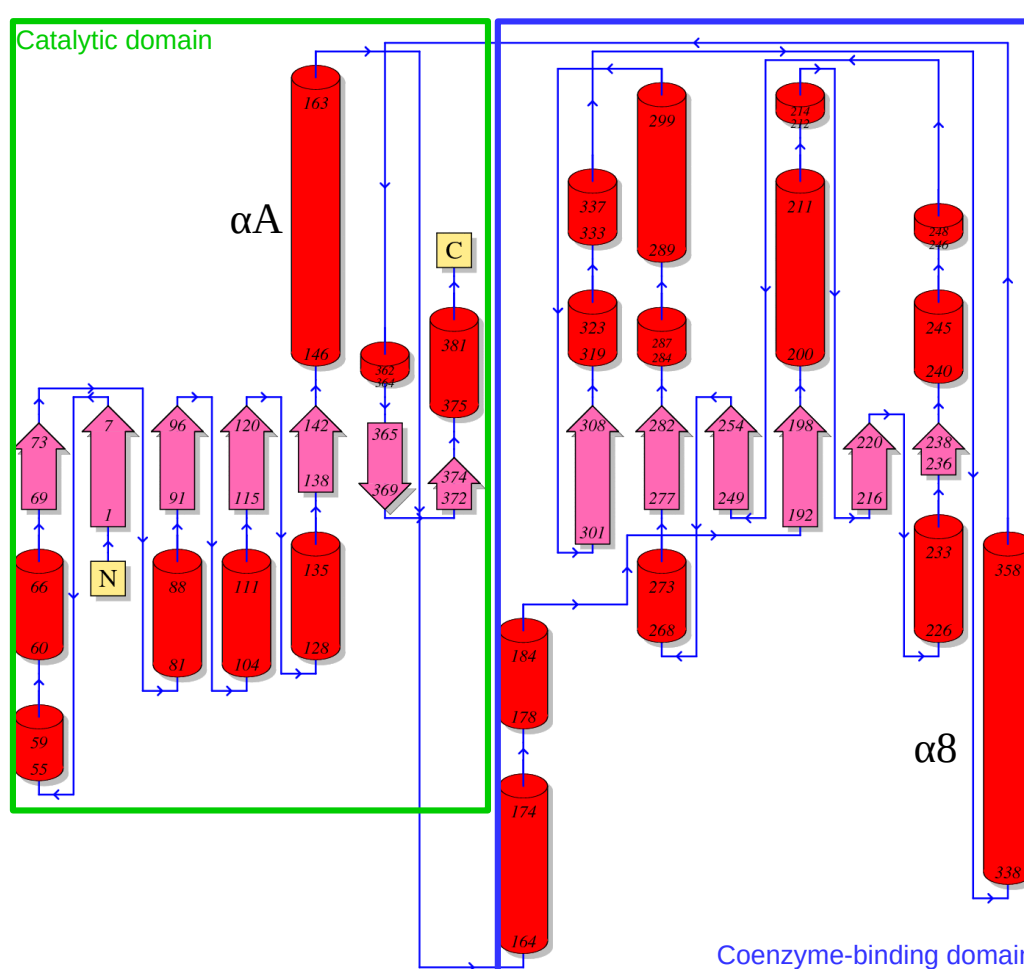


Figure 3. Topology diagram of a subunit of PseFDH. α helices are represented by bright red cylinders and β -strands are depicted as pink arrows. The linker helices αA and $\alpha 8$ connected to the other identical subunit are marked in the figure. The catalytic and coenzyme-binding domains are inside green and blue rectangles, respectively. Image generated with the tools of the PDBsum database (Laskowski, 2001).

2.2.3 Primary structure

NAD⁺-dependent formate dehydrogenases have been identified from a diverse set of microorganisms and higher plants. Key characteristics of the most well-known FDHs have been listed in Table 1. Within a taxonomical domain, the sequences of formate dehydrogenases usually show a similarity of 80 percent or more. Especially the amino acids responsible for catalytic activity or binding the substrate and coenzyme are highly conserved. The sequences of amino acid residues delineating the active site are up to 95 percent similar even between bacterial and plant FDHs (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). When comparing whole FDH sequences from different domains, for example bacteria and fungi, they are still approximately 50 percent similar overall (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). An example of sequence alignment of FDHs from different species is shown in Figure 4.

However, sequence alignments of the NAD⁺-binding region in PseFDH and lactose, malate and alcohol dehydrogenases (LDH, MDH and ADH, respectively) show that these sequences are no more than 20 percent similar (Lamzin *et al.*, 1992). Despite the lack of sequence similarity as a whole, some key amino acid residues which form polar contacts with bound NAD⁺ are considered conserved in all of the above-mentioned enzymes (Lamzin *et al.*, 1992).

Table 1. Physical and chemical properties of certain NAD⁺-dependent formate dehydrogenases. Data adapted from Popov & Lamzin (1994).

Source	Subunits × molecular mass (kDa)	Activity (u/mg)	pH optimum	K _M ^{NAD⁺} (μM)	K _M ^{formate} (mM)
<i>Pseudomonas sp.</i> 101	2 × 44	16.0	6.0–9.0	110	15
<i>Pseudomonas oxalaticus</i>	2 × 100, 2 × 59	-	7.5	105	0.14
<i>Moxarella sp.</i> C-1	2 × 48	6.0	6.0–9.0	68	13
<i>Candida boindii</i>	2 × 36	2.4	6.5–8.5	90	13
<i>Candida methylica</i>	2 × 46	10.0	6.0–9.0	100	13
<i>Candida methanolica</i>	2 × 43	7.5	6.5–9.5	110	3
<i>Pichia pastoris</i> NRRL-Y-7556	2 × 47	8.2	6.5–7.5	140	16
<i>Pichia pastoris</i> IFP 206	2 × 34	2.8	7.5	270	15
<i>Pisum sativum</i>	2 × 42	3.7	6.0–8.0	43	1.7

[illegible]

2.3 Formate dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas* sp. 101

binding and the transition state of the catalytic reaction (Lamzin *et al.*, 1992).

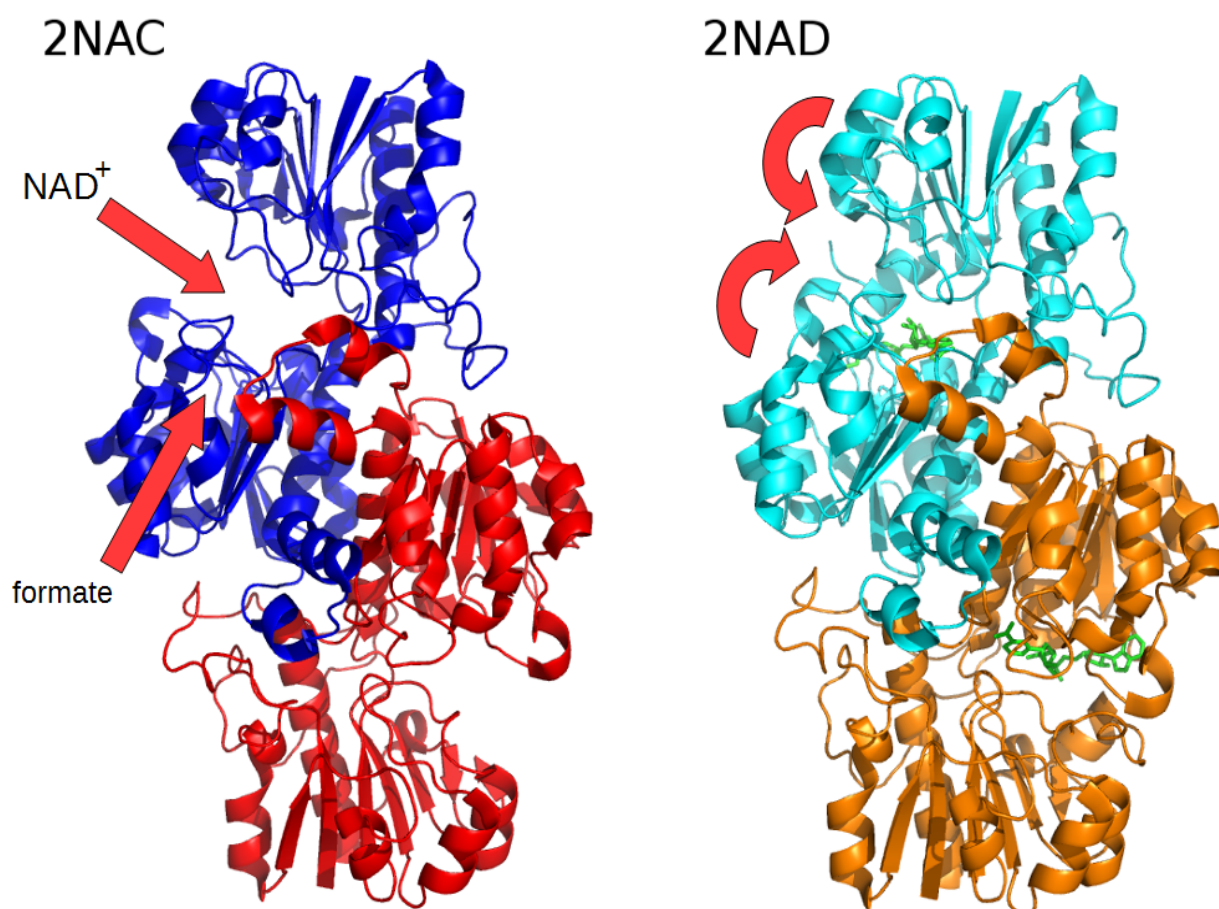


Figure 5. Two available PDB structures of PseFDH. 2NAC is the apo form, with chain A colored red and chain B colored blue. 2NAD is the holo form, with bound NAD⁺ (green) and chains A and B (cyan and orange). Azide and sulphate present in the 2NAD file have been omitted from this representation. In the 2NAC structure, the red arrows denote the entry routes of NAD⁺ and formate into the active site. NAD⁺ enters the active site through the substrate channel and formate primarily uses the substrate channel. In the 2NAD structure, the red arrows illustrate the conformational change in the subunit, which results in the blockade of both above-mentioned channels. Image made with PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.3).

2.3.1 Substrate channel

The active site of PseFDH is situated inside the subunit, approximately 15 Å from the surface (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). There are two ways which formate can use to enter the active site. Its primary path is the narrow substrate channel. Prior to NAD⁺ binding, formate can diffuse in via the wide and open coenzyme channel (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). According to molecular dynamics simulations, there are no steric hindrances to formate along this way (Popov &

Tishkov, 2003). Despite the fact that the substrate channel is very narrow, simulations show that formate transport through the channel is slightly more favorable energetically (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). This phenomenon can be accounted for the amino acid residues at the inner end of the channel: Pro97, Arg284 and His332. They have a crucial role in directing formate to a conformation that is favorable to the reaction (Nilov *et al.*, 2012) and because of that, they are highly conserved in other FDHs as well (Galkin *et al.*, 2002).

Lys286 is the gatekeeper of the substrate channel. Within the pH optimum of PseFDH, 6.0–9.0, its side chain is protonated and thus positively charged because the pK_a of the amino group is 10.53 (<http://www.cem.msu.edu/~cem252/sp97/ch24/ch24aa.html>; 18/05/2016). Due to its charge, it attracts negatively charged formate and prevents positively charged ions of the bulk solution from entering and possibly blocking the channel (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). The channel is quite narrow at both ends, about 5–6 Å in diameter, and therefore only formate analogs similar in size, shape and charge can fit into the channel (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). In the transition from apo to holo form of PseFDH, the conformation changes in the whole subunit cause the substrate channel to close. A loop formed by residues Asn385–Ser390 prevents the entry of solvent molecules into the channel and the inner end of the channel becomes narrower in order to restrain formate in the active site (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). These C terminal residues are not present in the 2NAC structure because Lamzin *et al.* (1994) were unable to determine their correct conformation due to high mobility. They are, however, included in 2NAD since this structure is more tight and stable. The structure of the substrate channel in both apo and holo conformation is displayed in Figure 6.

In the apo form of PseFDH, the coenzyme channel is filled with bulk water. Upon NAD^+ binding, water molecules are excluded from the interior parts of the PseFDH subunit. Water molecules in the active site would severely interfere with the hydride transfer reaction, and therefore it has been deduced that the holo structure of PseFDH is too tight for any water molecules (Özgün *et al.*, 2015).

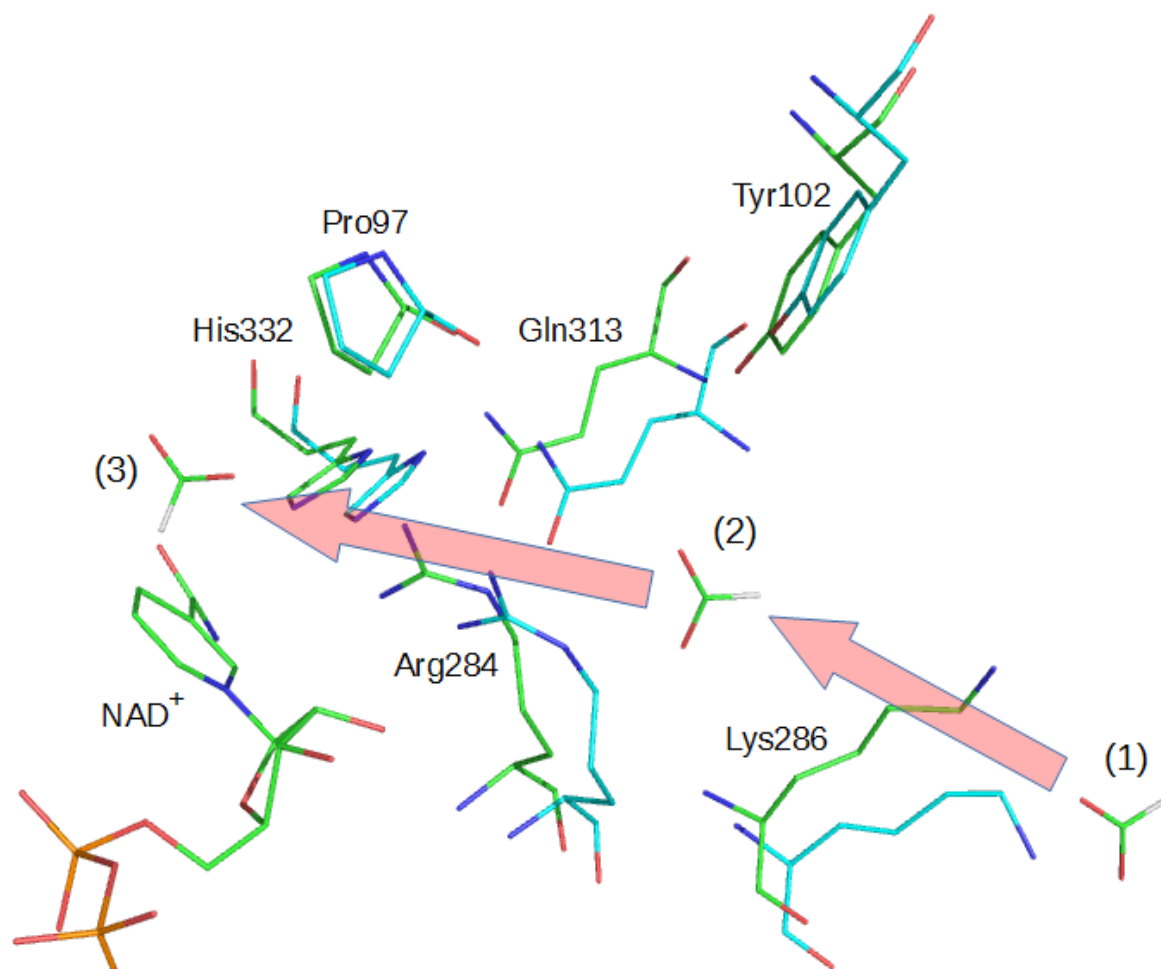


Figure 6. Positions of the key residues in both apo (2NAC, cyan carbon backbones) and holo (2NAD, green carbon backbones) conformation in the substrate channel of PseFDH. The transport of formate (yellow carbon atom) to the active site is depicted in three steps: (1) Positively charged Lys286 attracts formate from bulk solution; (2) formate enters the substrate channel and is captured by Arg284 which transports it to the active site (3). Image made with PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.3).

2.3.2 Structure and function of the active site

The catalytic domain of PseFDH is formed by amino acid residues 1–146 and 334–393 (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). Key residues responsible for the catalytic activity are Ile122, Asn146, Arg284 and His332 (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). All these residues interact with formate via hydrogen bonds during catalysis. Formate is transported to the active site from the substrate channel with the help of Arg284 (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). The guanidinium group at the end of the side chain of Arg284 has a pK_a value of 12.48, designating it is strictly protonated under physiological pH (<http://www.cem.msu.edu/~cem252/sp97/ch24/ch24aa.html>; 18/05/2016).

Inside the active site two other residues form hydrogen bonds to formate. Each of the two oxygen atoms of formate forms two hydrogen bonds. One is connected to Arg284 which has a delocalized positive charge and two amino groups to bond with. The other oxygen atom is bonded to the amino moiety of the carboxamide group of Asn146 and to the nitrogen atom of Ile122 backbone (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). Molecular dynamics simulations indicate that the oxygen atoms of formate are held in place by the above-mentioned interactions (Torres *et al.*, 1999; Nilov *et al.*, 2012). Thus, the carbon–hydrogen bond is free to swing above the C4_N of NAD⁺ (Torres *et al.*, 1999). The hydrophobic amino acid residues Pro97 and Phe98 are located above the nicotinamide ring of NAD⁺. Being highly conserved in all FDHs, their primary purpose is supposedly to prevent water molecules from entering the active site and disrupting the hydride transfer (Torres *et al.*, 1999). Also, their bulky side chains restrict the movement of formate, pushing it towards the C4_N of NAD⁺ (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). A schematic representation of the active site of PseFDH and the essential polar contacts within is depicted in Figure 7.

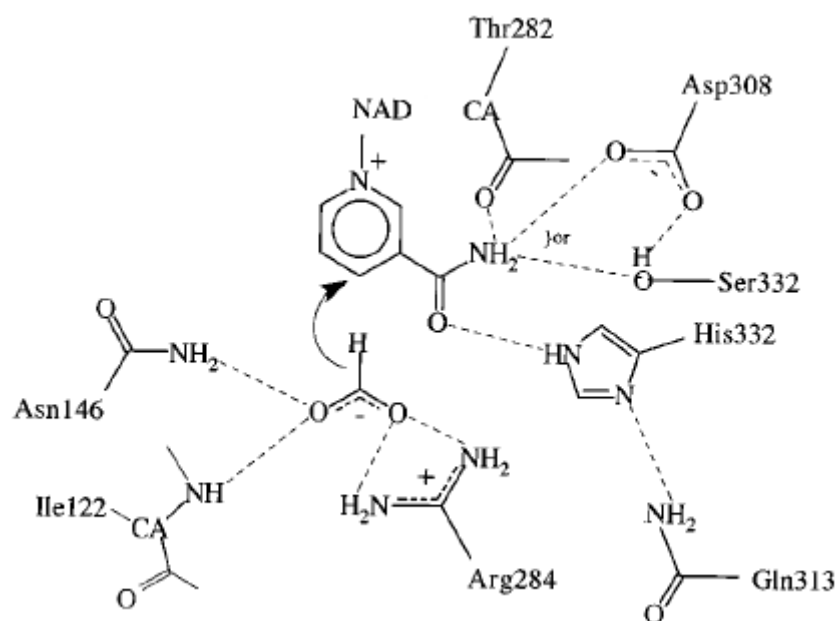


Figure 7. The hydrogen bond network in the PseFDH active site with bound formate. Modified scheme originally adapted from Torres *et al.* (1999).

According to some molecular dynamics simulations, His332 can also be involved in formate binding not only during the orientation phase, but during the hydride transfer reaction as well (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). This is possible because Gln313 forms a tight, stabilizing hydrogen bond to the imidazole ring of His332 causing the nitrogen atom of His332 facing the active site (often named HE2 in literature) to remain protonated, being able to interact with formate oxygens (Torres *et al.*, 1999; Nilov *et al.*, 2012). However, the interactions between His332 and formate seem to be only incidental during the hydride transfer (Nilov *et al.*, 2012). Instead, His332 has another important role in enabling the reaction. It forms a hydrogen bond to the oxygen atom of the carboxamide group of NAD⁺ along with Thr282, Asp308 and Ser334; see Figure 7 (Torres *et al.*, 1999). Data from simulations has shown that the hydrogen bond between His332 and the carboxamide group is strengthened in tandem with the transition from the apo to holo form of the subunit (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). This shift seems to decrease the volume of the active site, making the reaction between formate and NAD⁺ more probable (Torres *et al.*, 1999). Reflecting the importance of His332, the enzyme activity of PseFDH is lost following its mutation to phenylalanine. The enzyme is still able to bind NAD⁺ but neither formate nor azide of which the latter is the strongest competitive inhibitor of FDHs (Tishkov *et al.*, 1996).

Binding of NAD⁺ and formate to the active site triggers a conformational change in the PseFDH subunit (see Figure 5). The most notable change is the rotation observed in the catalytic domain. Upon NAD⁺ binding, the catalytic domain rotates 7.5 degrees in relation to the coenzyme-binding domain about the contact regions of the domains (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). As a result, a novel helix designated as $\alpha 9$ is formed at the C terminus of the subunit. This helix blocks the coenzyme channel, preventing NAD⁺ from exiting the active site until the hydride transfer. Studies on NAD⁺ binding suggest that binding of the ADP ribose moiety alone can trigger a significant conformational change towards the holo form in the PseFDH subunit. Nevertheless, the nicotinamide ring and particularly its positive charge are the most important driving forces in the shift from apo to holo (Popov & Lamzin, 1994).

2.3.3 Reaction mechanism

The hydride transfer reaction between formate and NAD⁺ involves breaking a carbon–hydrogen bond and forming a new one (Schjøtt *et al.*, 1998). In the reaction, the molecular orbitals of formate and the C4_N of NAD⁺ overlap and form a short-lived transition state. Next,

the positively charged nicotinamide ring pulls the hydride away from formate. As a result, the C4_N has two hydrogen atoms bound to itself, the nicotinamide ring of newly-formed NADH is neutralized, and formate now oxidized to CO₂ starts to diffuse away from the active site (Popov & Lamzin, 1994). This reaction was initially thought to be irreversible (Popov & Tishkov, 2003), but the reverse reaction, the reduction of CO₂ to formate, was later found to be possible, but the reaction rate is quite low (Mondal *et al.*, 2015), yet improvable with the help of enzyme engineering and the adsorption of FDHs onto electrode surfaces (Sakai *et al.*, 2015; Reda *et al.*, 2008).

Figuring out the favorable conformations of formate and NAD⁺ during the hydride transfer reaction has been one of the most important objectives in formate dehydrogenase research. Previously it was thought that linear hydride transfer reactions are energetically favored over any other types (Wu & Houk, 1987). For example, the hydrogen atom of formate would have to point directly towards the C4_N of NAD⁺ for the hydride transfer to occur. However, an early computational study conducted by Wu and Houk (1987) demonstrated that the transition structures for hydride transfer from methylamine and 1,4-dihydropyridine to methyleniminium are energetically more stable in syn conformation than in anti (see Figure 8). The authors concluded that the syn conformation maximizes the overlap of the molecular orbitals of hydride and the acceptor carbon. The syn conformation is preferred in hydride transfer reactions involving NAD⁺/NADH as well (Wu *et al.*, 1995). Furthermore, the nicotinamide ring of NAD⁺/NADH has been proven to be planar, both computationally and experimentally (Schjøtt *et al.*, 1998; Wu *et al.*, 1995).

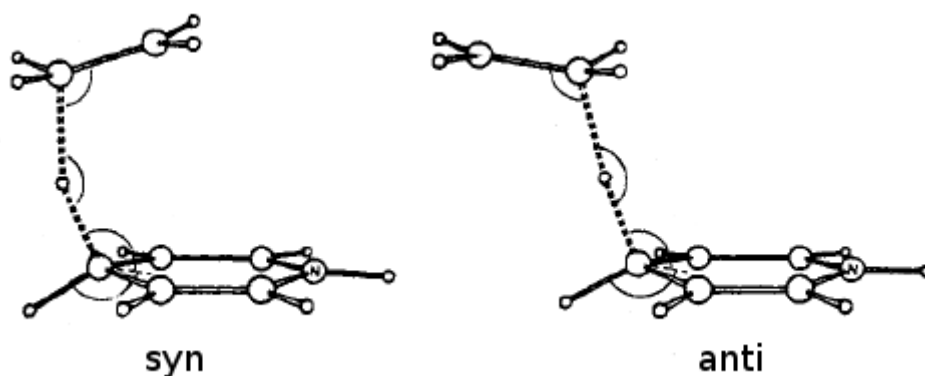


Figure 8. The hydride transfer between 1,4-dihydropyridine and methyleniminium in both syn and anti conformations. The syn conformation is energetically more favorable by 5.9 kJ/mol. Modified scheme originally adapted from Wu & Houk (1987).

Torres *et al.* (1999) defined the ideal angle and distance for hydride transfer between the hydrogen atom of formate and the C4_N in their computational study. Designated as the kinetically essential near attack conformation (NAC), the angle C (formate) – H (formate) – C4_N (NAD⁺) should fall between 132° and 180°, and the H – C4_N distance should be equal or less than 3.0 Å. These parameters are widely used in computational FDH research.

2.3.4 Molecular modeling of PseFDH

Molecular modeling and performing molecular dynamics simulations on FDHs were enabled when Lamzin *et al.* (1994) published the first high-resolution X-ray structure of PseFDH. Since it has been possible to compare the results of previous experimental studies to those of computational ones. Molecular dynamics simulations have confirmed the early assumptions about the catalytic mechanisms of FDHs and have provided more information on the roles of certain amino acid residues situated in the active site (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). For example, Torres *et al.* (1999) discovered that the bulky hydrophobic residue Phe98 located above the nicotinamide ring of NAD⁺ limits the rate of the hydride transfer by frequently blocking the motion of the carbon–hydrogen bond of formate back towards the C4_N. Because of this the favorable near attack conformations were perceived only during 1.5 percent of the simulation time.

The most extensive computational study on PseFDH so far was carried out by Nilov *et al.* (2012). They investigated the binding of formate to the active site using three different molecular dynamics methods: classical molecular dynamics, steered molecular dynamics and the most advanced one, QM/MM, which denotes quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics. There were five initial models altogether, and each of them was simulated for 10 nanoseconds. The classical method was used to study formate binding. Calculations on formate transport through the substrate channel were done with the steered method in which formate was placed at the channel entrance and it was steered into the active site with the help of a virtual spring attached to the carbon atom of formate and to the alpha carbon of Asn146. Finally, Nilov *et al.* (2012) selected formate and the nicotinamide ring and the sequential ribose moiety of NAD⁺ for a more accurate analysis with quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics. Based on the results, the researchers stated that there were vast differences in the probability of formation of the near attack conformation whether the classical or the QM/MM method was used. The carbon–hydrogen bond of formate was oriented towards the C4_N for only 0.5 percent of the time during the classical molecular dynamics simulations. On the contrary, this number was up to 75 percent during one of the QM/MM simulations. The QM/MM calculation method is a very efficient way of analyzing intermolecular interactions in detail. However, the molecules used in these simulations need to be parametrized in greater detail than in conventional molecular dynamics simulations (Senn & Thiel, 2009).

3 Objectives

The main objective of this thesis project was to develop models for bicarbonate binding and the concurrent reduction reaction in the active site of formate dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas sp.* 101 by using the methods of molecular dynamics. Formate dehydrogenases have several practical applications in the field of chemical industry, mainly in NADH regeneration systems, but their ability to reduce CO₂ and possibly bicarbonate makes them potential catalysts for carbon fixation from the sea and the atmosphere (Mondal *et al.*, 2015). That is, formate dehydrogenases, perhaps after thorough protein engineering, could be used to fight the climate change. In a hypothetical scenario, tons of FDHs would be produced in bacteria and then these enzymes would be poured into large water tanks or even directly into the oceans to react with bicarbonate, preventing its escape to the atmosphere as gaseous CO₂.

In an early study on the kinetics of the formate dehydrogenase from *Phaseolus aureus* (mung bean) it was found out that bicarbonate acts as a competitive inhibitor against the conversion from formate to CO₂ when NAD⁺ is bound to the active site (Peacock & Boulter, 1970). Although there is some experimental evidence which implies that FDHs could use bicarbonate as substrate under some circumstances (Sakai *et al.*, 2015), no papers about studying this occurrence *in silico* have been published to date. That is, the interactions between bicarbonate and NADH have not been studied in detail. In this study, it was also necessary to compare the binding scheme of bicarbonate to those of formate and CO₂, and therefore simulations in which formate and CO₂ were docked into the active site were carried out as well.

4 Materials and methods

Molecular docking and building of the initial models for molecular dynamics simulations were done with Swiss-PDB Viewer version 4.1 (Guex & Peitsch, 1997). Topology and parameter files for amino acids and all the ligands (NAD⁺, NADH, formate, bicarbonate, CO₂) were taken from the current version (3.0.1) of the CHARMM General Force Field, or CGenFF (Vanommeslaeghe *et al.*, 2010). The initial structures were prepared for simulations with the AutoPSF plugin of VMD 1.9.2 (Humphrey *et al.*, 1996). The simulations were carried out at the Taito supercluster of the Finnish IT Center for Science (CSC) using NAMD version 2.9 (Phillips *et al.*, 2005). Again, VMD was used to visualize and analyze the results of the simulations.

4.1 Structure preparation

The PDB structure 2NAD by Lamzin *et al.* (1994) was used as a template for all starting models. In 2NAD, PseFDH is in its native dimeric form. To simplify the upcoming calculation, the A chain was removed from the structure. This action was justified by the fact that the FDH subunits operate independently, without any allosterical regulation (Popov & Tishkov, 2003). The ligands were docked to the active site of the remaining B chain using the coordinates of the azide inhibitor as a reference. After docking, the azide ion was removed from the file as well as the sulphate ion also present in the original structure.

In order to perform molecular dynamics calculations using the CHARMM force field (Brooks *et al.*, 1983), protein structure files (PSF) based on the desired structures need to be generated. PSF files contain information about the atoms, types, bonds and partial charges of the residues. A topology file is needed to generate a PSF file, to which the possible interactions described in a parameter file are applied by molecular dynamics programs during calculation (Brooks *et al.*, 2009). In this study, the generation of PSF files was automated by AutoPSF, a psfgen-utilizing plugin distributed with the VMD software package. AutoPSF provides a clear graphical user interface for loading topology files to a PDB structure and solvating molecules in TIP3P water with neutralizing Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions included. In each simulation the TIP3P layer was 12 Å thick in each direction and the concentration of NaCl was 0.5 M. The topology files of all ligands are included in the appendices.

After docking, the structures were loaded into VMD. Topology files for ligands were loaded into AutoPSF prior to the generation of the corresponding PSF file. By default, AutoPSF loads the topologies of all amino acids found in proteins on startup. These topology files are from the CGenFF as well. Because atom names in PDB files must be equal to those in topology files, the topology files of the ligands originating from the CGenFF had to be modified, because the atom names and numbering did not match completely. Due to several inconsistencies, every atom was renamed in the topology files of NAD⁺ and NADH.

The initial structures had NAD⁺ bound to the active site. It appeared as NAD⁺ or NADH in the PSF files, depending on which topology file was used in PSF generation. This was possible because the coordinates of hydrogen atoms are not included in the 2NAD structure. Hydrogen atoms are added by the psfgen program based on the information present in the corresponding topology file. Of course, there are differences in bond order and charge between the nicotinamide rings of NAD⁺ and NADH, but these details have also been defined in the topology files.

4.2 Simulation phase

When the PSF files of all three starting models were ready, they were uploaded to the Taito server along with two CHARMM parameter files. One parameter file covered the interactions of amino acid residues and the other contained the corresponding data for the ligands. Also, NAMD configuration files were uploaded to the server. These files were constructed with the help of the NAMDgui plugin of VMD and they retained all the simulation parameters. The same parameters were used in all configuration files. Most importantly, the temperature was set to 298 K, the duration of the energy minimization phase was 2,000 steps (by default, one step is equivalent to one femtosecond) and the maximum duration of the proper simulation phase was adjusted to 10,000,000 steps (that is, 10 nanoseconds).

A SLURM (Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management) batch job file was constructed according to the instructions on the CSC website. This file is used by the supercluster to allocate resources for the computing job submitted. Each simulation was run using 128 cores, with the maximum duration set to 24 hours. The DCD trajectory files produced were up to 50 gigabytes in size and therefore the CatDCD plugin of VMD was used to split the files into smaller and more easily analyzable segments.

5 Results and discussion

5.1 Overview of the simulations

The three simulations carried out at the Taito supercluster of the Finnish IT Center for Science yielded trajectory files of varying size (Table 2). The bond distances and angles between the transferring hydride and the acceptor carbon were measured with VMD. In all angle measurements the hydride was defined as the vertex and the two rays were set to point at the donor and acceptor carbon atoms. In these simulations, formate carbon and the C4_N of NADH were the donor carbons while the acceptors were the carbon atoms of CO₂ and bicarbonate, and the C4_N of NAD⁺. The results were plotted into two graphs, with one displaying the bond distances and the other showing the angle values (Figures 9 & 10). Another interesting detail worthy of examination was the orientation of the carboxamide group of the nicotinamide ring. This was done by observing the distance between the carboxamide oxygen (O7_N) and the hydrogen atom (H2_N) bonded to the C2_N (Figure 12). The carboxamide group is free to rotate and may reside in either *cis* or *trans* conformation (Schiøtt *et al.*, 1998). Generally, when the oxygen atom of the carboxamide group is oriented towards the active site, the conformation is referred to *cis*. In proportion, the conformation is called *trans* when the oxygen atom is facing the active site.

Table 2. Statistics on the simulations performed at CSC. Key numbers of the distances and angles between the hydride and the acceptor carbon are listed in the table as well.

Simulation	1) formate & NAD ⁺	2) CO ₂ & NADH	3) bicarbonate & NADH
Duration (ns)	2.70	4.05	4.80
Frames	54,231	81,154	96,949
Min distance (Å)	1.91	2.41	1.89
Max distance (Å)	4.91	7.09	4.70
Avg. distance (Å)	4.20	3.68	3.10
Min angle (°)	5.65	66.39	89.82
Max angle (°)	175.77	179.54	178.33
Avg. angle (°)	32.97	154.19	133.82

5.2 Conformation of the substrates in the active site

5.2.1 Formate and carbon dioxide

The range of distances between the C4_N and formate hydrogen and between the hydride bound to C4_N and the carbon atoms of carbon dioxide and bicarbonate showed distinctive differences (see Figure 9). Firstly, formate hydrogen turned away from the C4_N already in the minimization phase of the simulation. The restrictive effect of Phe98 on the movement of formate was observed exactly as described by Torres *et al.* (1999). During the rest of the simulation, the H (formate) – C4_N distance was fixed to 4 Å on average. Thus, the hydride resided too far from the C4_N for hydride transfer to occur. Secondly, CO₂ was the most mobile substrate. Within the first nanosecond the carbon atom of CO₂ moved back and forth and went as far as 7 Å away from the hydride, momentarily returning to the vicinity of the nicotinamide ring. The transient long distances can be explained by the simultaneous vertical movement of the nicotinamide ring of NADH. Moreover, the simulation with CO₂ and NADH was the most unstable one considering the conformation of the active site. The presence of CO₂ had a destabilizing effect on the active site, with many key amino acid residues being displaced by the end of the simulation (see Figure 12, panel B3). On the other hand, the destabilization of the PseFDH subunit by CO₂ is only natural, because both CO₂ and NADH ought to exit the active site, with the subunit returning to the apo conformation.

The drastic swing of the carbon–hydrogen bond of formate in the minimization phase is clearly visible in the graph showing the measures of hydride transfer angles (Figure 10). The initial angle was practically perpendicular at 175.77 degrees and the initial distance from the C4_N was set to 1.90 Å, that is, within the limits of the near attack conformation defined by Torres *et al.* (1999). The average angle between C (formate) – H (formate) – C4_N was no more than 32.97 degrees throughout the simulation. Nevertheless, these results are consistent to earlier studies. It appears that the classical molecular dynamics method has some inaccuracies which could have been avoided by using the QM/MM method instead. QM/MM is better in managing and applying point charges (Nilov *et al.*, 2012), but applying the method itself is not trouble-free and could lead to false results if the simulation parameters are not set with caution. Although the simulation with formate was only 2.7 nanoseconds in duration, it is thus highly unlikely that the conformation of formate would have been improved later on.

When it comes to CO_2 , the angle values seem better than in the simulation with formate (Figure 10). Both the angle values and the distance from the hydride are close to the near attack conformation from 1 to 3.5 nanoseconds of simulation time. After 3.5 nanoseconds the angle begins to decline. This is due to the progressive destabilization of the protein structure. That is, the active site becomes wider as many key amino acid residues which formed hydrogen bonds to CO_2 earlier in the simulation drift farther away. Initially the oxygen atoms of CO_2 are held in place by the same amino acid residues as the oxygen atoms of formate: Ile122, Asn146 and Arg284. These contacts begin to grow weaker after 3.5 nanoseconds. As the distance between the oxygen atoms of CO_2 and the amino groups of the previously mentioned amino acids is extended, the hydrogen bonds become insufficient to coordinate the carbon atom of CO_2 towards the hydride, resulting in unorganized spinning of CO_2 .

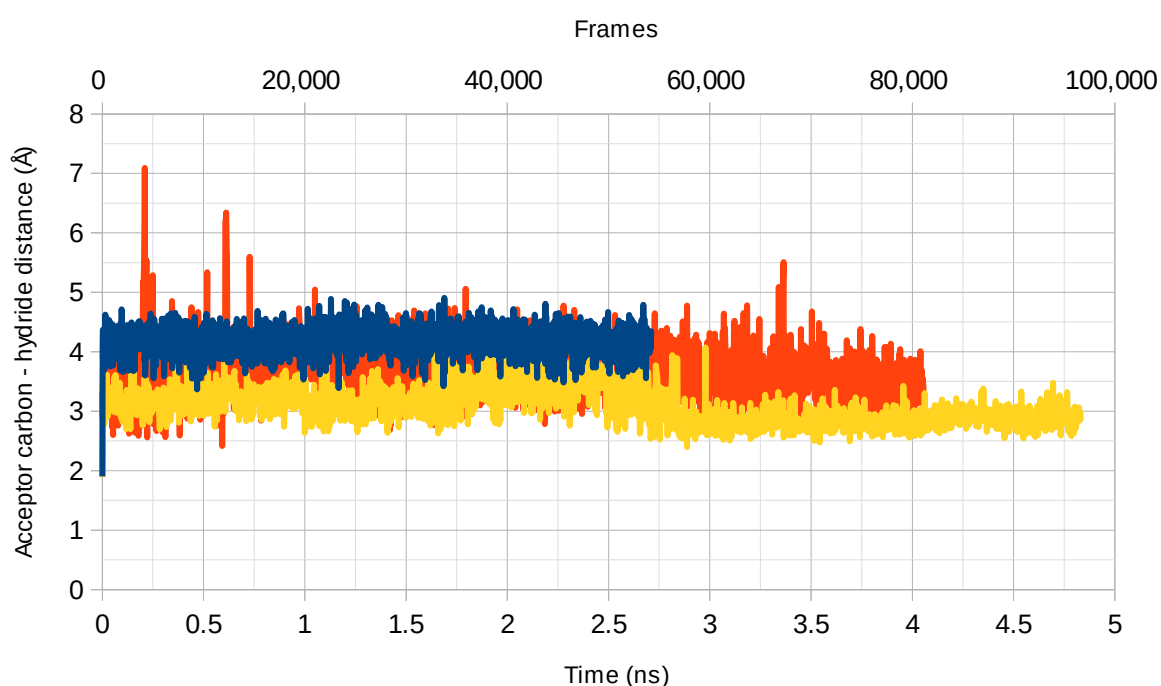


Figure 9. Distances between the transferring hydride and its acceptor carbon atom during the course of the three simulations. Simulations with formate, CO_2 and bicarbonate are represented by blue, red and yellow lines, respectively.

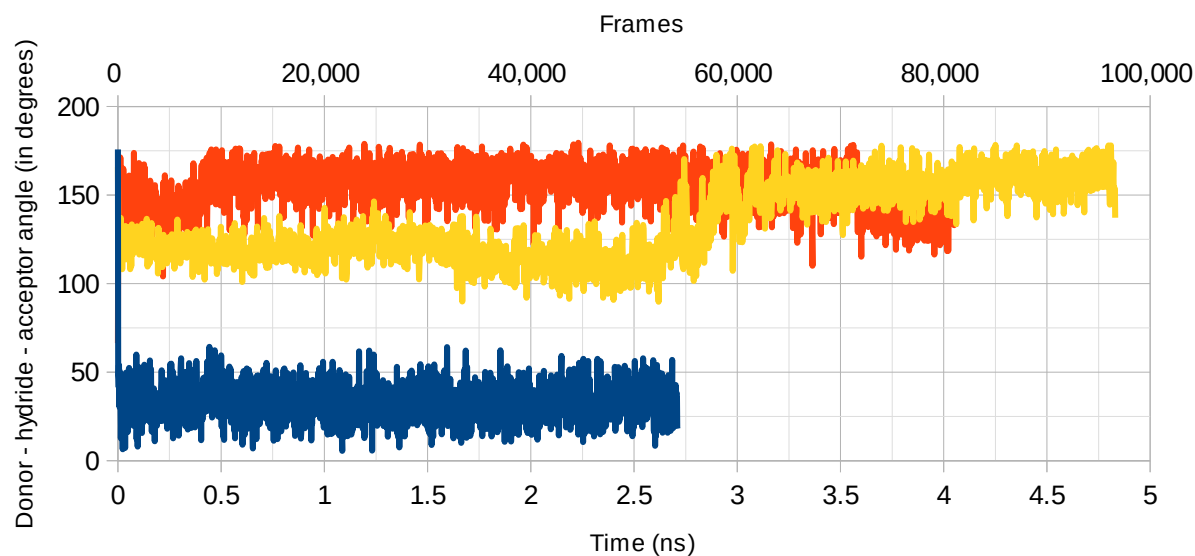


Figure 10. Angles between the donor and acceptor carbon atoms of either substrate or NAD^+/NADH . The hydride was set as the vertex in angle measurements. Simulations with formate, CO_2 and bicarbonate are represented by blue, red and yellow lines, respectively.

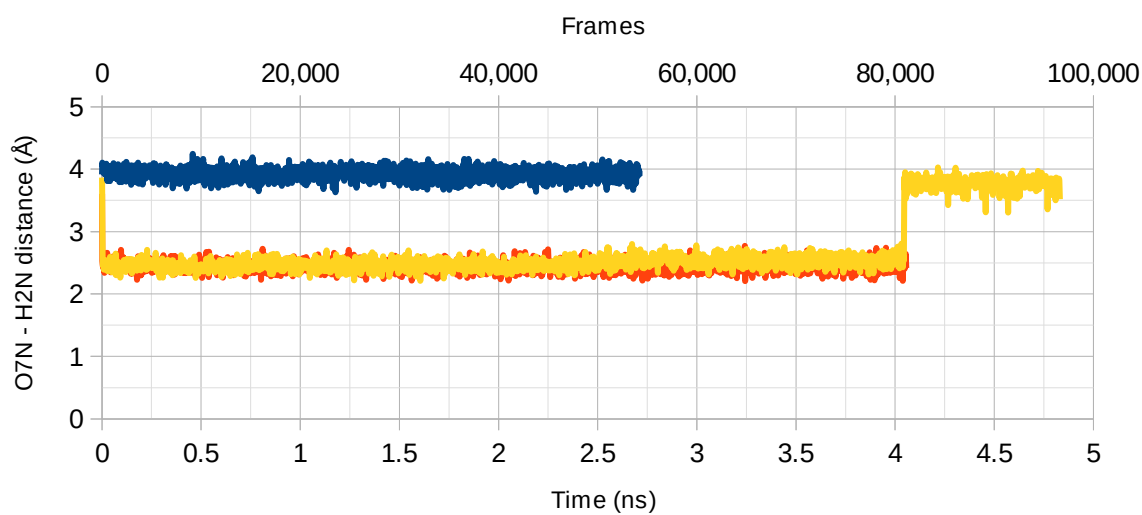


Figure 11. Orientation of the carboxamide group of NAD^+/NADH during simulations. When the distance between O7_N (carboxamide oxygen) and H2_N (a hydrogen of the nicotinamide ring) is roughly 4 Å, the orientation is *trans*. When it is about 2.5 Å, the orientation is *cis*.

5.2.2 Bicarbonate

The initial conformation of bicarbonate was chosen considering the optimality of the hydrogen bond network. Therefore, bicarbonate was placed close to the nicotinamide ring of NADH, in order that the hydroxyl group of bicarbonate was facing the carboxamide group (Figure 13, panel 1). It was found out that the hydrogen bonds between bicarbonate and the residues surrounding it are maximized when the carboxamide group of NADH is rotated into *cis* conformation in which the amino group is pointing towards the active site. For instance, the oxygen atom of the hydroxyl group of bicarbonate could form two hydrogen bonds with the amino group. However, no changes in the conformation of the carboxamide group were made in the 2NAD PDB file which was used as the starting point of the actual simulation. Because the carboxamide group is free to rotate (Schiøtt *et al.*, 1998), its orientation should transform from the native *trans* to *cis* if the latter is more energetically favorable.

Compared to formate and CO₂, bicarbonate remained relatively close to the nicotinamide ring during the simulation. The maximum distance between the carbon atom of bicarbonate and the hydride of NADH was 4.70 Å and the average distance only 3.10 Å (Figure 9). Shortly after minimization bicarbonate began drifting away from the hydride while rolling over the nicotinamide ring (Figure 13, panels 2 and 3). This change was facilitated by the interactions between bicarbonate oxygens and the amino groups of Asn146 and Arg284. The great shift in angle from roughly 110 degrees to values apt for the near attack conformation between 2.5 and 3.0 nanoseconds can be explained by the horizontal movement of bicarbonate. Bicarbonate moves from above the nicotinamide ring towards the hydride and is placed in near-perpendicular position in relation to the C4_N–hydride bond (Figure 13, panels 5 and 6).

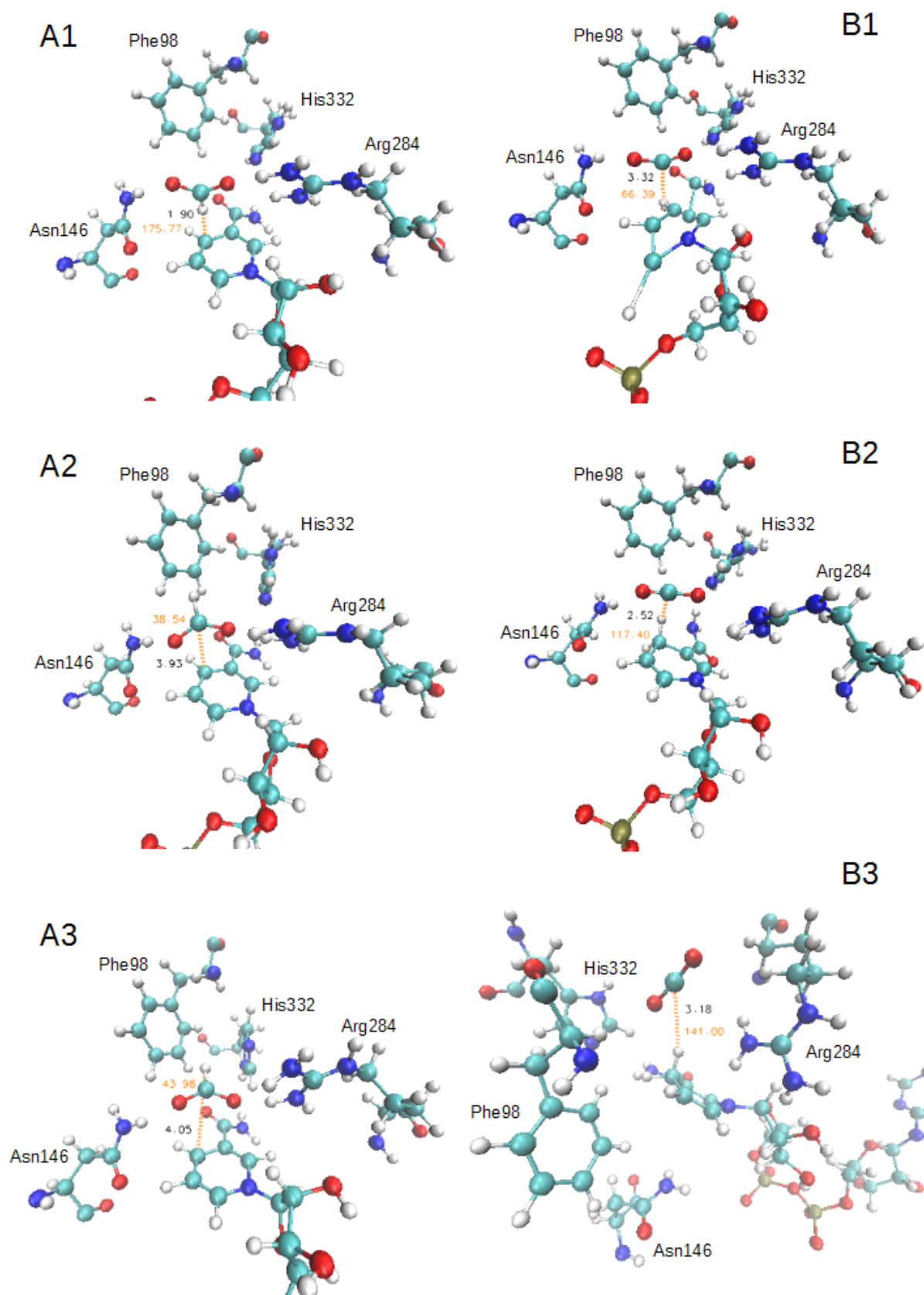


Figure 12. Conformations of formate (left panels; A) and CO₂ (right panels; B) during simulations. Acceptor carbon-hydride distances and angles are portrayed by black and orange numbers, respectively. Legend: (A1/B1) $t = 0$; (A2/B2) $t = 2$ ps (after minimization); (A3) $t = 2.70$ ns (final frame); (B3) $t = 4.05$ ns (final frame). Images made with VMD (Humphrey *et al.*, 1996).

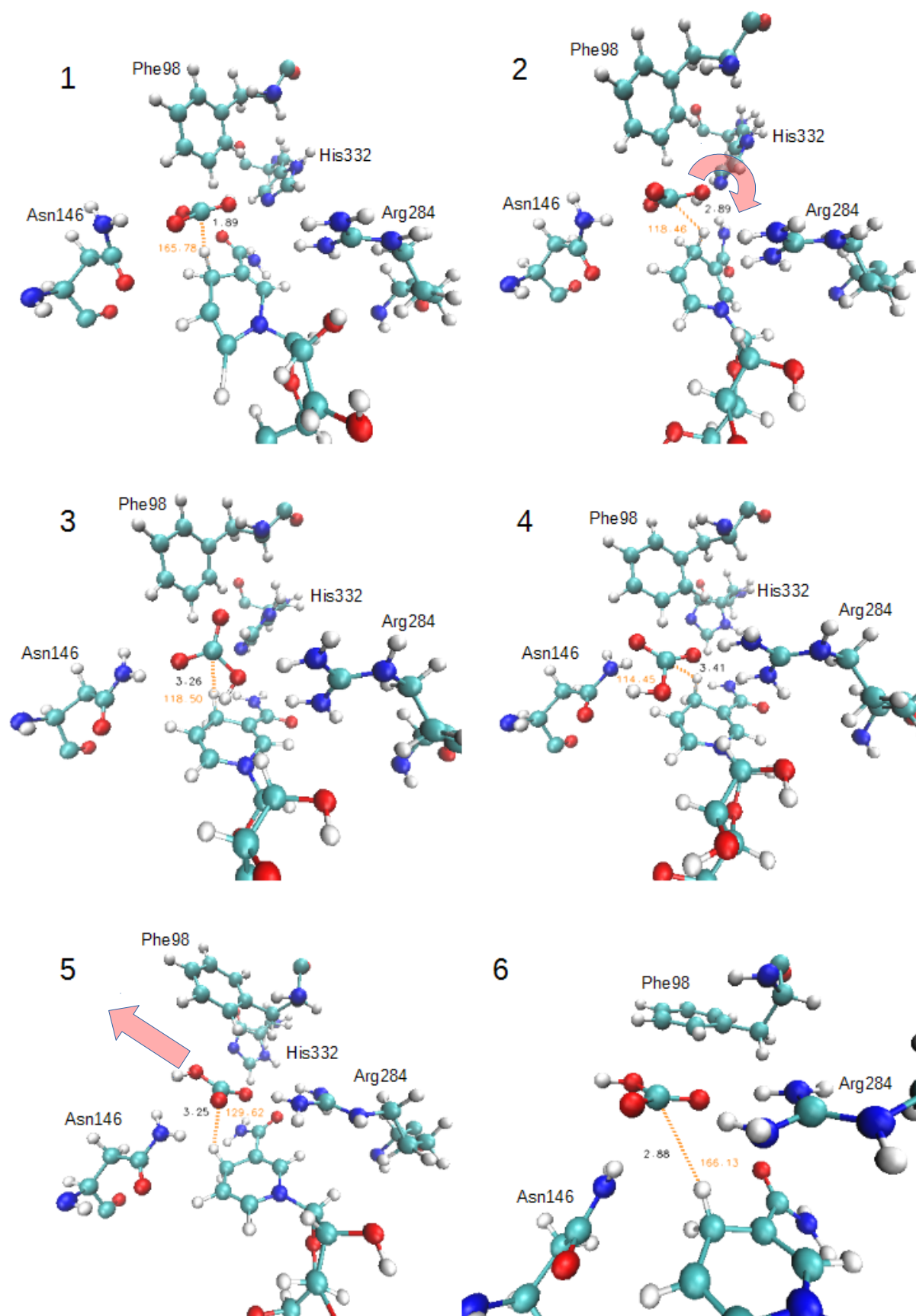


Figure 13. Conformation of bicarbonate during the simulation. Legend: (1) $t = 0$; (2) $t = 2$ ps, after minimization; (3) $t = 50$ ps, bicarbonate flips around over the nicotinamide ring; (4) $t = 2.43$ ns, bicarbonate drifts freely in the vicinity of the hydride; (5) $t = 2.87$ ns, slow migration towards the near attack conformation; (6) $t = 4.80$ ns, example of an optimal conformation for hydride transfer. Images made with VMD (Humphrey *et al.*, 1996).

5.3 Proposed reaction mechanism for the reduction of bicarbonate

Based on the optimal conformation of bicarbonate in the active site of PseFDH, a novel model for the reduction of bicarbonate was developed (Figure 14). In the model, the hydride from NADH attacks the carbon atom of bicarbonate. Then, a short-lived transition state is formed. The overall reaction yields hydroxide and formate. In principle, formate could react further with the newly formed NAD^+ . However, it is yet unclear if the hydroxide ion formed in the previous reaction could hinder the latter reaction.

5.3.1 Reaction mechanism in detail

The hydride transfer from NADH to bicarbonate is initiated when the near attack conformation is attained. In this model, the conditions for hydride transfer are assumed to be the same as for formate and NAD^+ defined by Torres *et al.* (1999). That is, the angle between the carbon atom of bicarbonate, the transferring hydride and the C4_N does not necessarily have to be perpendicular at 180 degrees. Instead, a more tilted angle may be favored, as proposed by Wu & Houk (1987) who also stated that in hydride transfers between two planar molecules, the syn conformation is favored over anti. Both conformations are present in the simulation but the conditions of the near attack conformation are not fulfilled when the syn conformation is predominant (Figure 13, panel 5). The distance between the carbon atom of bicarbonate and the C4_N does not descend to values under 3 Å until bicarbonate drifts to the anti conformation. It is possible that this is caused by amino acid residues Ile122, Asn146 and Arg284, which were evolved to direct formate towards the C4_N . Similar interactions with bicarbonate may lead to its placement in the anti conformation.

The short-lived and unstable transition state is formed when the hydride attacks the *p* orbital of the bicarbonate carbon which is double bonded to one of the oxygen atoms (Figure 14). To determine which oxygen atom has the negative charge and which is double bonded to carbon, one must take the charges of the environment into account. Logically, the oxygen atom which forms hydrogen bonds to positively charged Arg284 should be the negative one, because it would balance the differences in charges (see Figure 13, panel 6). Consequently, the oxygen atom facing Ile122 and Asn146 is involved in the double bond. The binding of the hydride to the carbon atom causes the double bond to break. The binding electrons of the double bond move to oxygen and as a result, the transition complex has two negatively charged oxygen

atoms. The hydroxyl group has remained unaffected until now when the repulsion between the negative oxygen atoms detach it from the molecule. Following the breakdown of the transition complex, formate and hydroxide are formed. Formate might react further to CO_2 but the fate of the hydroxide ion is unclear. In theory, the positively charged Arg284 could attract hydroxide and pull it into the substrate channel, discharging it from the active site.

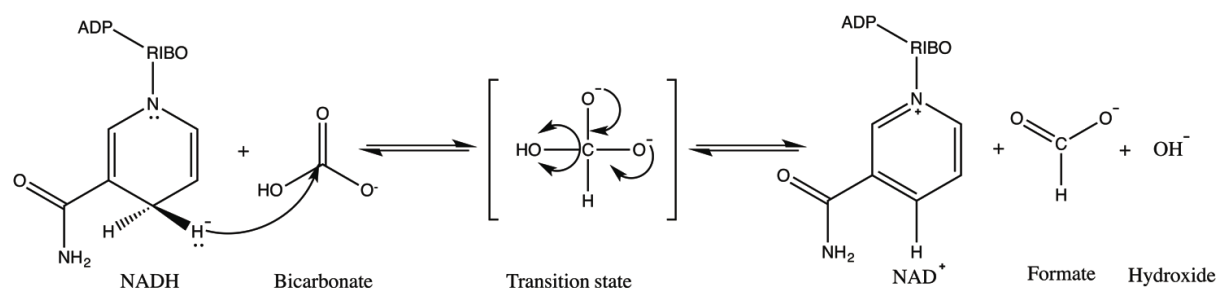


Figure 14. Proposed reaction mechanism for the reduction of bicarbonate yielding formate and hydroxide. Scheme adapted from Aslan *et al.* (2016) by the courtesy of Jarkko Valjakka (original author of the scheme).

5.3.2 Kinetic properties of the reaction

Aslan *et al.* (2016) have conducted a yet unpublished experimental study on the enzyme kinetics of formate dehydrogenases from *Chaetomium thermophilum* (CtFDH) and *Candida methylca* (CmFDH) using bicarbonate as substrate. Detailed results of these experiments can be reviewed in Tables 3 & 4 and Figure 15. Perhaps the most intriguing result was the fact that CtFDH was able to generate formate from bicarbonate. This was not the case for CmFDH which did not show appreciable bicarbonate-to-formate transformation rates. Due to high similarity between formate dehydrogenases, the results of this study could be applied to PseFDH with caution. However, it should be kept in mind that CtFDH is a fungal enzyme while both CmFDH and PseFDH originate from methylotrophic bacteria.

Table 3. Kinetic properties of CtFDH with different substrates. Data adapted from Aslan *et al.* (2016).

CtFDH	K_M (mM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat} / K_M ($mM^{-1}s^{-1}$)
Formate	3.30 ± 0.26	20.39 ± 0.46	6.18
Bicarbonate	0.36 ± 0.03	0.12 ± 0.00	0.34
NAD ⁺	0.84 ± 0.08	33.40 ± 0.82	39.76
NADH	0.03 ± 0.00	0.22 ± 0.00	7.21

Table 4. Kinetic properties of CmFDH with different substrates. Data adapted from Aslan *et al.* (2016).

CmFDH	K_M (mM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat} / K_M ($mM^{-1}s^{-1}$)
Formate	7.01 ± 0.37	13.09 ± 0.26	1.87
Bicarbonate	0.78 ± 0.15	0.08 ± 0.00	0.10
NAD ⁺	1.00 ± 0.12	31.69 ± 1.08	31.61
NADH	0.06 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.00	1.90

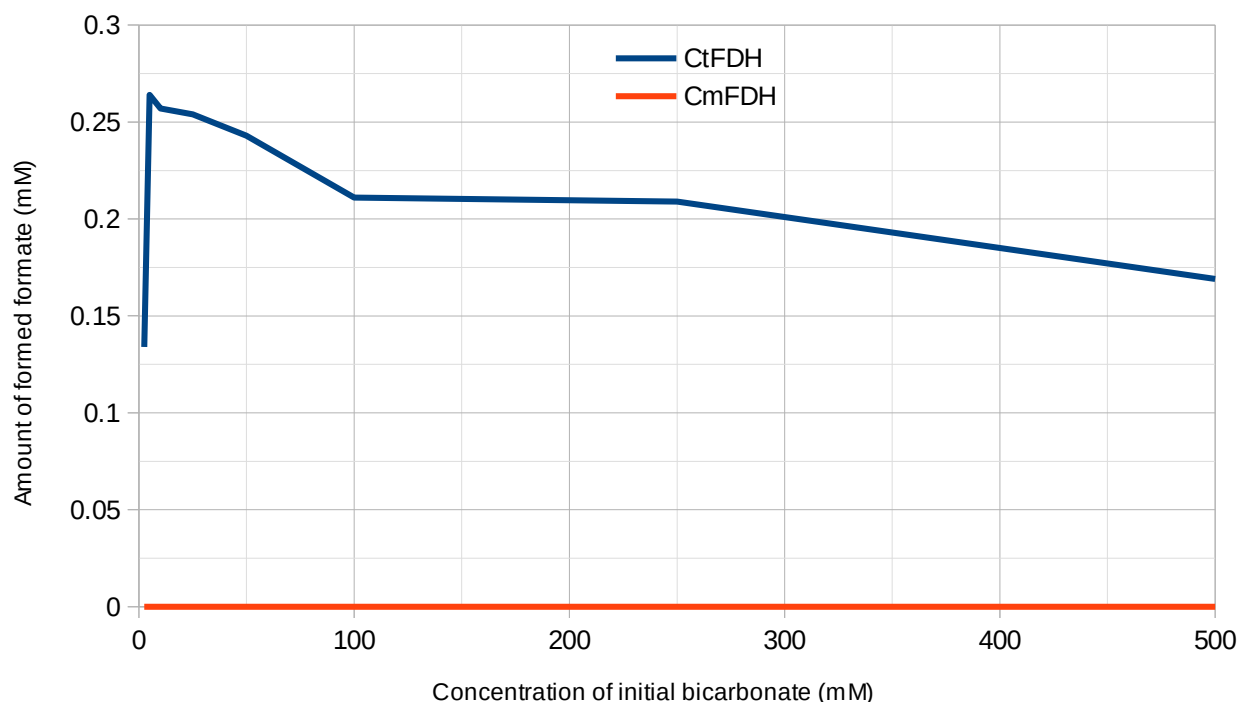


Figure 15. Effect of initial bicarbonate concentration on the activities of CtFDH and CmFDH. Data adapted from Aslan *et al.* (2016).

The experimental results are in line with the simulations performed for this thesis. Apparently, the enzyme is quickly saturated by bicarbonate, because the K_M value is very low. The conversion from bicarbonate to formate and hydroxide may take up to several nanoseconds because bicarbonate needs time to reach the near attack conformation. In the simulation, the minimum time needed for proper positioning of bicarbonate was three nanoseconds. Before positioning itself to the near attack conformation, bicarbonate must gain access into the active site in the first place. The diffusion rate is likely another important contributor to the slow reaction speed. Overall, the results are promising, but further enzyme engineering is still needed for the bicarbonate conversion reaction to become profitable.

5.4 Future prospects

Based on the existing results, the binding interactions and reaction mechanism for bicarbonate in the active site of formate dehydrogenases could be studied further using quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics simulations. These more advanced simulations allow studying the hydride transfer on orbital level and simulating the effects of charges more accurately. Another important research subject is how bicarbonate travels to the active site.

Hypothetically, bicarbonate could use the very same substrate channel as formate does. It is though possible that the channel is too narrow for bicarbonate, and its only way to the active site is through the coenzyme channel.

Analysis of different mutations and their effects on the ability of formate dehydrogenases to utilize bicarbonate first *in silico* and then experimentally is a crucial step if more efficient systems for coenzyme regeneration or carbon fixation are needed. Native formate dehydrogenases are none too powerful for these purposes in large or even global scale.

6 Conclusion

The molecular dynamics simulations conducted in this thesis project have shown that bicarbonate can adapt a favorable conformation for hydride transfer in the active site of formate dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas sp.*, strain 101. The initial conformation which was constructed by optimizing the hydrogen bond interactions was found not to be optimal as bicarbonate settled in a conformation highly similar to that of formate during the course of the simulation. That is, Ile122, Asn146 and Arg284 form hydrogen bonds with the oxygen atoms of bicarbonate and keep the carbon atom slightly under 3 Å away from the hydride bound to NADH.

A plausible reaction mechanism for the hydride transfer from NADH to bicarbonate, yielding formate and hydroxide, was developed. The hydride must attack the *p* orbital of the carbon atom which forms a double bond to one of the oxygen atoms. Experimental data seems to support both the results of the computational analyses and the model of the reduction of bicarbonate. The orientation of bicarbonate towards the near attack conformation is a time consuming process and thus it is likely the rate-limiting step of the reaction.

A noteworthy observation about the research methods is the inaccuracy of classical molecular dynamics simulations under certain circumstances. Nevertheless, the classical MD method is still valuable when analyzing enzyme–substrate interactions *ab initio*. The preliminary results could then be used as a base for deeper analyses with quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics simulations or laboratory experiments.

7 References

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Appendix

This section contains the topology files of ligands used in PSF file generation. The topology files were initially taken from the CGenFF (Vanommeslaeghe *et al.*, 2010) and the atom names were modified to match those in the PDB files of the initial FDH–ligand structures.

Formate

```
RESI FOR          -1.00 ! CHO2 formate, from acetate, sz & kevo
GROUP
ATOM  C1  CG2O3    0.52 !      H
ATOM  O2  OG2D2   -0.76 !      C
ATOM  O3  OG2D2   -0.76 !    /  \
ATOM  H4  HGR52    0.00 !   -O   O

BOND C1 H4
BOND C1 O2 C1 O3
IMPR C1 O2 O3 H4
IC  O3  O2 *C1 H4  0.00 0.00 180.0 0.0 0.0
IC  H4  O3 *C1 O2  0.00 0.00 180.0 0.0 0.0 !redundant definition needed to
enable seeding.

END
```

Carbon dioxide

```
RESI CO2          0.00 ! CO2 Carbon Dioxide, John Straub
GROUP
ATOM  C1  CG2O7    0.60
ATOM  O1  OG2D5   -0.30
ATOM  O2  OG2D5   -0.30
BOND O1  C1  O2  C1

END
```

Bicarbonate

```
RESI BIC          -1.00 ! CHO3 bicarbonate, xxwy & kevo
ATOM  C   CG2O6    0.69 ! H3   O1
ATOM  H3   HGP1    0.43 ! |    /
ATOM  O1   OG2D2   -0.76 ! O3--C  (-)
ATOM  O2   OG2D2   -0.76 !      \
ATOM  O3   OG311   -0.60 !      O2

BOND C  O1  C  O2  C  O3  O3 H3
IMPR C  O1  O2  O3
! seed = O1 C O2
IC  O2  O1 *C O3  0.0000  0.00 180.00 0.00 0.0000
IC  O1  C  O3 H3  0.0000  0.00  0.00 0.00 0.0000

END
```


ACCE	O3D								
ACCE	O2D								
ACCE	O7N								
DONO	H2NT	O2D							
DONO	H3NT	O3D							
DONO	H71N	N7N							
DONO	H72N	N7N							
IC	PA	O3	PN	O5D	1.4863	65.28	-169.00	98.59	1.5977
IC	C5B	O5B	PA	O3	1.4232	127.31	-165.10	103.27	1.4863
IC	C5B	O5B	PA	O2A	1.4232	127.31	73.33	111.48	1.4836
IC	H5AS	C5B	C4B	C3B	0.9935	120.00	-58.20	111.58	1.6942
IC	PA	O3	PN	O1N	1.4863	65.28	78.51	108.97	1.4756
IC	PA	O3	PN	O2N	1.4863	65.28	-54.29	112.88	1.4636
IC	PA	O5B	C5B	C4B	1.5901	127.31	121.29	111.63	1.5491
IC	O1A	PA	O5B	C5B	1.5901	127.31	121.29	127.31	1.4232
IC	O5B	C5B	C4B	C3B	1.4232	111.63	-58.20	111.58	1.6942
IC	C5B	C4B	C3B	O3B	1.5491	111.58	128.42	114.19	1.4337
IC	H3AT	O3B	C3B	C4B	0.9671	98.77	147.40	114.19	1.6942
IC	O4B	C3B	*C4A	C5B	1.8868	112.95	-118.10	111.58	1.5491
IC	C2B	C4B	*C3B	O3B	1.5097	93.22	-117.72	114.19	1.4337
IC	C4B	C3B	C2B	C1B	1.6942	93.22	-12.93	117.82	1.5415
IC	C3B	C2B	C1B	N9A	1.5097	117.82	135.56	115.01	1.4847
IC	O4B	C1B	N9A	C4A	1.3646	95.44	-90.72	125.96	1.4013
IC	C1B	C4A	*N9A	C8A	1.4847	125.96	-176.52	105.34	1.3777
IC	C4A	N9A	C8A	N7A	1.4013	105.34	-0.07	114.01	1.3282
IC	C8A	N9A	C4A	C5A	1.3777	105.34	0.11	105.06	1.3782
IC	C8A	N7A	C5A	C6A	1.3282	103.21	-179.92	130.78	1.4146
IC	N7A	C5A	C6A	N1A	1.3814	130.78	-179.94	117.85	1.3482
IC	C5A	C6A	N1A	C2A	1.4146	117.85	-0.14	118.87	1.3300
IC	N9A	C5A	*C4A	N3A	1.4013	105.06	-179.67	126.14	1.3648
IC	C5A	N1A	*C6A	N6A	1.4146	117.85	179.89	119.69	1.3419
IC	N1A	C6A	N6A	H61A	1.3482	119.69	-0.39	116.60	0.9912
IC	H61A	C6A	*N6A	H62A	0.9912	116.60	-179.02	116.94	0.9978
IC	C5A	N1A	*C6A	N6A	1.4146	117.85	179.89	119.69	1.3419
IC	N1A	C6A	N6A	H61A	1.3482	119.69	-0.39	116.60	0.9912
IC	H61A	C6A	*N6A	H62A	0.9912	116.60	-179.02	116.94	0.9978
IC	N9A	N7A	*C8A	H8A	1.3777	114.01	-179.37	126.34	1.0962
IC	N1A	N3A	*C2A	H2A	1.3300	129.42	179.97	114.82	1.0928
IC	C1B	C3B	*C2A	O2B	1.5415	117.82	-145.06	114.13	1.4294
IC	H2AX	O2B	C2B	C3B	2.0386	31.12	-93.63	114.13	1.5097
IC	H2AT	O2B	C2B	C3B	0.9953	99.36	-93.63	114.13	1.5097
IC	O4B	C2B	*C1B	H1AX	1.3646	120.77	-114.99	109.65	1.1105
IC	C1B	C3B	*C2A	H2AX	1.5415	117.82	108.23	86.44	1.0999
IC	C2B	C4B	*C3B	H3AX	1.5097	93.22	117.28	111.94	1.1110
IC	C3B	O4B	*C4A	H4AX	1.6942	112.95	-140.26	57.99	1.0000
IC	C4B	O5B	*C5A	H5AX	1.5491	111.63	-123.75	111.23	1.1111
IC	C4B	O5B	*C5A	H5AX	1.5491	111.63	-123.75	111.23	1.1111
IC	C5D	O5D	PN	O2N	1.4451	128.40	-49.72	108.83	1.4636
IC	H5NS	C5D	O5D	PN	1.1110	109.50	115.00	128.40	1.5977
IC	H5NX	C5D	O5D	PN	1.1110	109.50	-115.00	128.40	1.5977
IC	PN	O5D	C5D	C4D	1.5977	128.40	0.00	110.10	1.5160
IC	O5D	C5D	C4D	C3D	1.4451	110.10	0.00	108.50	1.5160
IC	C5D	C4D	C3D	C2D	1.5160	108.50	0.00	111.00	1.5160
IC	C4D	C3D	C2D	C1D	1.5160	111.00	0.00	105.50	1.5270
IC	C3D	C2D	C1D	O4D	1.5160	105.50	0.00	105.00	1.4100
IC	C2D	C1D	O4D	C4D	1.5270	105.00	0.00	117.86	1.4712
IC	O2D	C2D	C1D	O4D	1.4200	110.10	180.00	105.00	1.4100
IC	H2NT	O2D	C2D	C1D	0.9600	106.00	180.00	110.10	1.5270
IC	O4D	C2D	*C1D	H1NX	1.4100	105.00	-115.00	110.10	1.1110
IC	C1D	C3D	*C2N	H2NX	1.5270	105.50	115.00	110.10	1.1110
IC	C2D	C4D	*C3N	H3NX	1.5160	111.00	115.00	110.10	1.1110
IC	C3D	O4D	*C4N	H4NX	1.5160	100.64	-115.00	107.24	1.1110
IC	C4D	O5D	*C5N	H5NX	1.5160	110.10	-115.00	109.50	1.1110
IC	C4D	O5D	*C5N	H5NS	1.5160	110.10	115.00	109.50	1.1110
IC	C3D	C2D	C1D	N1N	1.5160	105.50	0.00	113.70	1.4800

IC	O3D	C3D	C2D	C1D	1.4200	110.10	180.00	105.50	1.5270
IC	H3NT	O3D	C3D	C2D	0.9600	106.00	180.00	110.10	1.5160
IC	C2D	C1D	N1N	C2N	1.5270	113.70	0.00	121.70	1.3150
IC	C1D	N1N	C2N	C3N	1.4800	121.70	0.00	122.00	1.3500
IC	N1N	C2N	C3N	C4N	1.3150	122.00	0.00	118.00	1.3600
IC	C2N	C3N	C4N	C5N	1.3500	118.00	0.00	118.00	1.3600
IC	C3N	C4N	C5N	C6N	1.3600	118.00	0.00	118.00	1.3500
IC	C4N	C5N	C6N	N1N	1.3600	118.00	0.00	124.51	1.2199
IC	C5N	C6N	N1N	C2N	1.3500	124.51	0.00	119.49	1.3150
IC	N1N	C2N	C3N	C7N	1.3150	122.00	0.00	131.80	1.4800
IC	C2N	C3N	C7N	O7N	1.3500	131.80	0.00	118.50	1.2300
IC	C2N	C3N	C7N	N7N	1.3500	131.80	0.00	113.00	1.3600
IC	O7N	C7N	N7N	H71N	1.2300	120.00	180.00	120.00	1.0000
IC	O7N	C7N	N7N	H72N	1.2300	120.00	0.00	120.00	1.0000
IC	C2N	C3N	C4N	H4N	1.3500	118.00	0.00	121.00	1.0900
IC	C3N	C4N	C5N	H5N	1.3600	118.00	0.00	119.00	1.0900
IC	C4N	C5N	C6N	H6N	1.3600	118.00	0.00	120.50	1.0900
IC	C6N	N1N	C2N	H2N	1.2199	119.49	0.00	117.50	1.0900

PATCH FIRST NONE LAST NONE

END

NADH

```
RESI NAD -2.00 ! C21H27N7O14P2 reduced nicotinamide adenine
dinucleotide, jjp1/adm jr.
! atom names correspond to pdb nomenclature
! checked for consistency with new NA params, adm jr.,
9/98
! note that differences with respect to published results
exist
! due to new NA params
```

```
GROUP
ATOM C4B CG3C51 0.11 !
ATOM H4AX HGA1 0.09 !
ATOM O4B OG3C51 -0.40 !
ATOM C1B CG3C51 0.11 !
ATOM H1AX HGA1 0.09 !
GROUP
ATOM C5A CG2RC0 0.28 !
ATOM N7A NG2R50 -0.71 !
ATOM C8A CG2R53 0.34 !
ATOM H8A HGR52 0.12 !
ATOM N9A NG2R51 -0.05 !
!
ATOM N1A NG2R62 -0.74 !
ATOM C2A CG2R64 0.50 !
ATOM H2A HGR62 0.13 !
ATOM N3A NG2R62 -0.75 !
ATOM C4A CG2RC0 0.43 !
ATOM C6A CG2R64 0.46 !
!
ATOM N6A NG2S3 -0.77 !
ATOM H61A HGP4 0.38 !
ATOM H62A HGP4 0.38 !
GROUP
ATOM C2B CG3C51 0.14 !
ATOM H2AX HGA1 0.09 !
ATOM O2B OG311 -0.65 !
ATOM H2AT HGP1 0.42 !
GROUP
ATOM C3B CG3C51 0.14 !
ATOM H3AX HGA1 0.09 !
ATOM O3B OG311 -0.65 !
ATOM H3AT HGP1 0.42 !
GROUP
ATOM C5B CG321 -0.08 !
ATOM H5AX HGA2 0.09 !
ATOM H5AS HGA2 0.09 !
ATOM PA PG1 1.50 !
ATOM O1A OG2P1 -0.82 !
ATOM O2A OG2P1 -0.82 !
ATOM O5B OG303 -0.62 !
ATOM O3 OG304 -0.68 !
ATOM PN PG1 1.50 !
ATOM O1N OG2P1 -0.82 !
ATOM O2N OG2P1 -0.82 !
ATOM O5D OG303 -0.62 !
ATOM C5D CG321 -0.08 !
ATOM H5NS HGA2 0.09 !
ATOM H5NX HGA2 0.09 !
GROUP
ATOM C2D CG3C51 0.14 !
ATOM H2NX HGA1 0.09 !
ATOM O2NX OG311 -0.65 !
ATOM H2NT HGP1 0.42 !

H61A H62A
 \ /
  N6A
  |
  C6A
 // \
N1A C5A--N7A\\
 | || C8A-H8A
C2A C4A--N9A/
 / \ \ /
H2A N3A

O1N O1A H5ASH4AX O4B
 | | | \ / \ \
 | | | \ / \ \
O5D PN-O3--PA-O5B -C5B -C4B C1B
 \ | | | \ / \ \
 \ O2N O2A H5AX C3B -C2B H1AX
 \ \ / \ / \ \
 \ O3B H3AXO2B H2AX
 \ | |
 \ H3AT H2AT
 \ | |
 \ H71N
 \ |
 \ H72N-N7N H4N H4N2
 \ \ / \ /
 \ C7N C4N
 \ / \ / \
 \ O7N C3N C5N-H5N
 \ || ||
 \ H2N-C2N C6N-H6N
 \ \ /
 \ C5D --C4D C1D -----N1N
 | \ / \
H5NX C3D -C2D H1NX
 / \ / \
O3D H3NXO2NXH2NX
 | |
H3NT H2NT
```

```

GROUP
ATOM C3D  CG3C51    0.14
ATOM H3NX  HGA1     0.09
ATOM O3D   OG311    -0.65
ATOM H3NT  HGP1     0.42
GROUP
ATOM C1D   CG3C51    0.11
ATOM H1NX  HGA1     0.09
ATOM C4D   CG3C51    0.11
ATOM H4NX  HGA1     0.09
ATOM O4D   OG3C51   -0.40
GROUP
ATOM N1N   NG301    -0.27 !N2
ATOM C6N   CG2D1O   -0.06 !C3
ATOM H6N   HGA4     0.17 !H4
ATOM C5N   CG2D1    -0.18 !C5
ATOM H5N   HGA4     0.14 !H6
ATOM C4N   CG321    -0.28 !C7
ATOM H4N   HGA2     0.09 !H8
ATOM H4N2  HGA2     0.09 !H17
ATOM C3N   CG2DC1    0.36 !C9
ATOM C2N   CG2D1O   -0.10 !C10
ATOM H2N   HGA4     0.14 !H11
ATOM C7N   CG2O1     0.55 !C12
ATOM O7N   OG2D1    -0.51 !O13
ATOM N7N   NG2S2    -0.72 !N14
ATOM H71N  HGP1     0.26 !H15 ! trans to amide O
ATOM H72N  HGP1     0.32 !H16 ! cis to amide O

BOND N1A  C2A      N3A  C4A      C5A  C6A
BOND C6A  N6A      C5A  N7A      C8A  N9A
BOND N9A  C4A      C2A  H2A      N6A  H61A      N6A  H62A      C8A  H8A
DOUBLE C6A  N1A      C2A  N3A      C4A  C5A      N7A  C8A
BOND N9A  C1B      C1B  C2B      C2B  C3B      C3B  C4B      C4B  O4B
BOND O4B  C1B      C1B  H1AX     C2B  O2B      O2B  H2AT     C2B  H2AX
BOND C3B  H3AX     C3B  O3B      O3B  H3AT     C4B  H4AX     C4B  C5B
BOND C5B  H5AS     C5B  H5AX     C5B  O5B      O5B  PA       PA  O1A
BOND PA   O2A      PA   O3       O3   PN       PN  O1N      PN  O2N
BOND PN   O5D      O5D  C5D      C5D  H5NS     C5D  H5NX     C5D  C4D
BOND C4D  O4D      O4D  C1D      C1D  C2D      C2D  C3D      C3D  C4D
BOND C1D  H1NX     C2D  H2NX     C2D  O2NX     O2NX H2NT     C3D  H3NX
BOND C3D  O3D      O3D  H3NT     C4D  H4NX     C1D  N1N      N1N  C2N
BOND C3N  C4N      C4N  C5N      C6N  N1N
BOND C2N  H2N      C3N  C7N      C7N  O7N      C7N  N7N      N7N  H71N
BOND N7N  H72N     C4N  H4N      C4N  H4N2     C5N  H5N      C6N  H6N
DOUBLE C2N  C3N      C5N  C6N
IMPR C6A   C5A  N1A  N6A
IMPR N6A   H62A H61A C6A
IMPR C6N   C5N  N1N  H6N
IMPR C2N   C3N  N1N  H2N
IMPR C7N   C3N  N7N  O7N
DONO H61A  N6A
DONO H62A  N6A
DONO H2AT  O2B
DONO H3AT  O3B
ACCE N1A
ACCE N3A
ACCE N7A
ACCE O4B
ACCE O2B
ACCE O3B
ACCE O5B
ACCE O1A  PA
ACCE O2A  PA
ACCE O3

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ACCE O1N PN
 ACCE O2N PN
 ACCE O5D
 ACCE O4D
 ACCE O3D
 ACCE O2NX
 ACCE O7N
 DONO H2NT O2NX
 DONO H3NT O3D
 DONO H71N N7N
 DONO H72N N7N
 ! IC table was beyond repair ==> replaced (kevo)
 IC PA O3 PN O5D 1.6011 92.88 167.64 96.12 1.6600
 IC PA O3 PN O1N 1.6011 92.88 62.12 118.93 1.5360
 IC PA O3 PN O2N 1.6011 92.88 -85.34 112.47 1.5263
 IC PN O3 PA O5B 1.6074 92.88 169.27 93.16 1.6636
 IC O3 O5B *PA O1A 1.6011 93.16 -115.15 102.32 1.5255
 IC O3 O5B *PA O2A 1.6011 93.16 120.82 100.53 1.5378
 IC O3 PA O5B C5B 1.6011 93.16 -65.25 117.89 1.4434
 IC PA O5B C5B C4B 1.6636 117.89 -111.08 111.72 1.5437
 IC C4B O5B *C5B H5AX 1.5437 111.72 121.91 113.03 1.1186
 IC C4B O5B *C5B H5AS 1.5437 111.72 -120.24 108.95 1.1118
 IC O5B C5B C4B C3B 1.4434 111.72 32.23 115.30 1.5403
 IC C5B C4B C3B O3B 1.5437 115.30 82.44 113.07 1.4340
 IC H3AT O3B C3B C4B 0.9956 102.19 -78.33 113.07 1.5403
 IC O4B C3B *C4B C5B 1.4436 105.34 -122.02 115.30 1.5437
 IC C2B C4B *C3B O3B 1.5312 103.02 -124.10 113.07 1.4340
 IC C4B C3B C2B C1B 1.5403 103.02 34.98 101.18 1.5414
 IC C3B C2B C1B N9A 1.5312 101.18 88.32 111.78 1.4609
 IC O4B C1B N9A C4A 1.4336 105.95 -149.10 127.35 1.3682
 IC C1B C4A *N9A C8A 1.4609 127.35 179.89 106.85 1.3818
 IC C4A N9A C8A N7A 1.3682 106.85 0.34 112.92 1.3338
 IC C8A N9A C4A C5A 1.3818 106.85 -0.12 105.55 1.3970
 IC C8A N7A C5A C6A 1.3338 103.64 -179.39 132.41 1.4083
 IC N7A C5A C6A N1A 1.3924 132.41 179.90 118.87 1.3616
 IC C5A C6A N1A C2A 1.4083 118.87 -0.29 119.53 1.3626
 IC N9A C5A *C4A N3A 1.3682 105.55 -179.81 125.91 1.3450
 IC C5A N1A *C6A N6A 1.4083 118.87 179.60 117.11 1.3448
 IC N1A C6A N6A H61A 1.3616 117.11 -176.96 119.87 0.9980
 IC H61A C6A *N6A H62A 0.9980 119.87 174.83 117.95 0.9930
 IC N9A N7A *C8A H8A 1.3818 112.92 -179.84 125.33 1.0978
 IC N1A N3A *C2A H2A 1.3626 125.37 -179.78 117.21 1.0932
 IC O4B C2B *C1B H1AX 1.4336 107.49 -118.51 111.70 1.1012
 IC C1B C3B *C2B H2AX 1.5414 101.18 120.60 111.56 1.0994
 IC C2B C4B *C3B H3AX 1.5312 103.02 114.75 109.97 1.1020
 IC C3B O4B *C4B H4AX 1.5403 105.34 -116.63 105.95 1.1009
 IC C5D O5D PN O2N 1.4353 125.45 -110.33 103.18 1.5263
 IC PN O5D C5D C4D 1.6600 125.45 -100.01 114.36 1.5573
 IC O5D C5D C4D C3D 1.4353 114.36 42.03 115.36 1.5403
 IC C5D C4D C3D C2D 1.5573 115.36 -91.03 101.62 1.5376
 IC C4D C3D C2D C1D 1.5403 101.62 -39.21 100.72 1.5399
 IC C3D C2D C1D O4D 1.5376 100.72 35.40 105.65 1.4395
 IC O2NX C2D C1D O4D 1.4392 115.62 158.69 105.65 1.4395
 IC H2NT O2NX C2D C1D 0.9686 102.30 157.15 115.62 1.5399
 IC O4D C2D *C1D H1NX 1.4395 105.65 -114.11 109.56 1.1015
 IC C1D C3D *C2N H2NX 2.4605 9.08 131.65 26.20 3.7695
 IC C2D C4D *C3N H3NX 4.7247 22.53 -7.48 17.99 6.8615
 IC C3D O4D *C4N H4NX 6.4634 19.31 -56.73 2.93 7.0769
 IC C4D O5D *C5N H5NX 5.1412 29.29 35.30 14.10 6.2151
 IC C4D O5D *C5N H5NS 5.1412 29.29 55.33 24.87 4.9161
 IC C3D C2D C1D N1N 1.5376 100.72 153.61 113.06 1.4871
 IC O3D C3D C2D C1D 1.4390 111.69 79.56 100.72 1.5399
 IC H3NT O3D C3D C2D 0.9633 102.31 55.04 111.69 1.5376
 IC C2D C1D N1N C2N 1.5399 113.06 115.33 119.55 1.3595
 IC C1D N1N C2N C3N 1.4871 119.55 179.60 123.83 1.3763

IC	N1N	C2N	C3N	C4N	1.3595	123.83	5.03	118.94	1.5428
IC	C2N	C3N	C4N	C5N	1.3763	118.94	-6.70	111.53	1.5189
IC	C3N	C4N	C5N	C6N	1.5428	111.53	5.08	122.32	1.3550
IC	N1N	C2N	C3N	C7N	1.3595	123.83	-158.70	118.33	1.5212
IC	C2N	C3N	C7N	O7N	1.3763	118.33	-160.59	120.47	1.2354
IC	C2N	C3N	C7N	N7N	1.3763	118.33	20.47	119.04	1.3683
IC	O7N	C7N	N7N	H71N	1.2354	120.48	-176.29	120.56	0.9982
IC	O7N	C7N	N7N	H72N	1.2354	120.48	0.52	116.91	0.9963
IC	C2N	C3N	C4N	H4N	1.3763	118.94	-136.51	113.66	1.1068
IC	C2N	C3N	C4N	H4N2	1.3763	118.94	108.33	105.96	1.1115
IC	C3N	C4N	C5N	H5N	1.5428	111.53	-149.76	116.93	1.0907
IC	C4N	C5N	C6N	H6N	1.5189	122.32	179.97	119.29	1.0969
IC	C6N	N1N	C2N	H2N	1.3589	121.05	177.95	116.69	1.0900
IC	C1B	C3B	*C2B	O2B	1.5414	101.18	-118.90	110.89	1.4319
IC	C3B	C2B	O2B	H2AT	1.5312	110.89	-28.83	100.98	0.9715
PATCH FIRST NONE LAST NONE									

END